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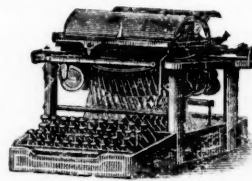
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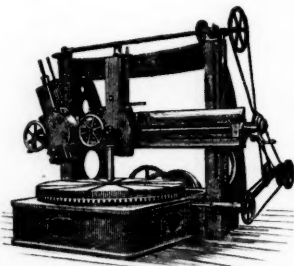
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THE AMERICAN.

VOL. XII.—NO. 302.

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REVIEW OF THE WEEK.

THE fact that President Cleveland has managed to find several opportunities for vetoes even in the scanty amount of legislation which has passed this Congress, seems to prove that, like Mr. Tyler and Mr. Johnson, he has a taste for that kind of work. He has refused to sanction laws which would make Springfield (Mass.) and Omaha ports of entry, on the ground that the multiplication of such ports tends to make the collection of the customs duties more complex and burdensome, and frauds on the revenue more easy. In this he is quite right, and right also in pressing upon Congress the need of legislation to restrain such frauds. Every week brings fresh evidence that the business of cheating the government by evasions of the tariff laws has been elevated to the rank of a science by many of the American agents of European manufacturers, especially the French and the German. This time it is the houses in the millinery trade at Chicago which have discovered that the duties paid by sundry New York firms in the same trade are far lower than they have been required to pay, and that it is impossible to compete with the beneficiaries of the cheating.

It is said by some of the Free Traders that we should abolish all the custom houses on our seacoast line which bring less revenue than the cost of maintenance. This would be a "penny-wise, pound-foolish" policy. The removal of the custom houses from those ports would erect each of them into a depot for smuggling, and would cost the nation in revenue far more than the present cost in salaries. The number of accessible ports on our coast is not a great one. The expense of maintaining a guard over them all is not burdensome. And the most convenient guard is a custom house, which at once offers each of these places every facility for commerce and for growth, while securing the proper enforcement of the revenue laws.

THE Canadians have seized another American fishing vessel for the crime of buying bait in their ports, and the situation grows still more strained. In the British house of Commons it was explained that the *David J. Adams* was prized for concealing her name and her sailing-port, and other violations of harbor law. We presume this ingenious apology for the disregard of international comity will not cover the new case. The Canadians will now have to admit that their act was based on their interpretation of the Treaty of 1818. And they will have to make out a clear case that that Treaty is still in force, and has not been superseded by the later agreements with regard to the fisheries. International law ascribes this power of resurrection only to treaty provisions which in their own nature seem to have been meant as permanent arrangements. If we must go back to earlier treaties, since the lapse of that made at Washington, why not go to Jay's treaty, which gave us the amplest access to the fisheries in the waters of British America? It was held that the War of 1812 abolished that; but surely it has as good a right to survive that war as has the Treaty of 1818 to survive the subsequent diplomatic agreements? We do not admit that the Canadians are acting in accordance with even the Treaty of 1818. Some of their own newspapers admit that they are not. But without that Treaty to fall back upon, they have no excuse for their conduct whatever.

WHAT the State Department is going to do about it, or has done about it, nobody seems to know. It is said that Mr. Bayard some time ago looked to Mr. Sackville-West for light on the merits of the question; and his conduct seems to give the report confirmation. Congress does not seem disposed to await the action of the Secretary of State. The Senate, with substantial unanimi-

ty, has passed Mr. Frye's bill after incorporating it with Mr. Dingley's bill to relieve American shipping of the payment of certain fees still exacted. It authorizes the President to deny the privileges of our ports to the ships of any country which refuses us the same or equal privileges in theirs. As Canada is not a foreign country, but only a dependency of Great Britain, it would seem impossible to take any action with regard to her shipping which did not apply equally to all vessels under the British flag. And this is likely to give Mr. Bayard the handle he wants to make the measure inoperative, if it should become a law.

THE Senate has agreed to Mr. Hoar's proposition to put every clause of the River and Harbor Appropriation Bill on its defence. We may expect that the gross amount will be much reduced before it goes back to the House. Should it not be so, there is much reason to expect that Mr. Cleveland will veto it, and as its friends have less than two-thirds majority, a veto would be its death. This we should regret greatly. Our rivers and harbors need large appropriations to promote domestic and foreign trade. We have a great area to look after, and the denial of the privilege of co-operation to the States makes national action an imperative necessity. It surely is possible to weed out all the jobs from such a bill, and the country will applaud the Senate in its effort to do this.

THE Senate has passed the Cullom Bill to regulate commerce by railroad between the States. It creates for this purpose a board of commissioners, who are to judge of the fairness of the charges made with reference to distance and cost, to prevent unreasonable charges, and to put an end to discriminations and rebates on lines which cross boundaries of states. They are to hold office for six years, not more than three are to be of the same party, and they are forbidden to own stocks of any carrying company, and to engage in any other business.

The provisions of the bill are much less vigorous than those of Mr. Reagan's bill, which fixed a maximum rate per mile for carrying passengers, and required that all freight charges should be exactly proportional to distance. It steers between no regulation and over-regulation,—between a policy which would make the carrying companies our masters and one which would put a stop to the building of railroads—with a good degree of success. Of course very much must depend on the commissioners, for although they must refer disputed cases to the national courts, it would be possible for an unwise majority to do a vast amount of harm. But the country is capable of furnishing at least a majority of true and worthy and discreet men for this work, and the bill is worth trying. If it should fail through too much limitation of the powers of the commissioners, that fault is much more easy of correction than the opposite fault would be.

MR. MORRISON, Mr. Holman and Mr. Randall, the three leaders of the majority in the House, find themselves quite unable to restrain their followers in the matter of voting the public money away in handfuls. Mr. Morrison told the House there is a Democratic majority in it because it was believed that the Republicans had been wasteful and that Democrats would be more economical. But "when the devil got well, the devil a monk was he." With a Democratic administration in power, and Democratic officials actually handling the money, the last reason for even a pretence at economy seems to have vanished. The aggregate of appropriations for this year will be greater than ever. A majority of the departments and their bureaus ask larger sums than ever were voted to them under the Republican administration; not one of them asks for less. All the pretence of cutting down expenses with

which Mr. Lamar and some others entered upon office has ceased.

But the old Democratic instinct to resort to cheese-paring wherever a Democrat has nothing to get out of an appropriation, is awakened by the proposal to give American steamships \$800,000 for carrying the mails. The House Committee on the Post-Office has voted to report that proposal of the Senate's negatively. But the House will vote the money readily enough if the Senate makes it understand that not a postmaster shall draw his salary this year if this is refused to our ships.

THE Consular Appropriation Bill has passed the House. We should have liked to see it amended as Mr. McAdoo proposed, by requiring our consuls to keep out of their official reports the extraneous matter with which they too often are padded. The conception of what is and what is not proper for an official document seems never to have been well established in our American practice. We have had very few Presidents even—and certainly Mr. Cleveland is not one of the few—who knew where to draw the line in this matter. And when a consul sends the State Department descriptions of scenery or economic speculations—as distinguished from economic facts—the report should go to the waste basket.

IN spite of repeated assurances that the labor troubles were over, Chicago still continues to be much disturbed. The arrests of Anarchists continue, but are fewer, while the number of workmen, especially of Poles and Bohemians, who are on strike, is still large. The courts are making ready to bring the arrested men to trial, and one judge has been instructing the grand jury as to the limits of free speech. His position is that any speech is exempt from legal consequences which does not lead to illegal acts. To this definition we should take decided exception. Any speech which is manifestly calculated to incite to illegal acts is properly to be held criminal, while speech which has not that criminal intention is innocent, whatever its effects. It is quite possible that words which had no evil intention, when addressed to a mob of desperate men, may be so received by them as to prove an incentive to crime. Are we then to punish their author? Was *Felix Holt* justly punished for the speech which led the mob to plunder and wreck Treby Manor, when his real object was to get the mob away from the whiskey vaults?

THE conspiracy to steal the Ohio Senate and thus to control legislation in the interest of the Democratic party has come to an ignominious end. The attempt to block all action by depriving the senate of a quorum having proved a failure, the Democratic senators have returned to the State and to Columbus, only to find themselves hopelessly in the minority, and their credit even for smartness lost. They now talk of appealing to the United States Court to have the acts of the State Senate declared illegal. This would be an exceedingly rich measure on the part of the party of states rights,—the national courts having no more jurisdiction in the case than over the Norwegian Storthing. Nor is Mr. Jackson, the newly appointed judge on the Ohio Circuit, the man to lend himself to such a scheme, even if he could become oblivious of all his party principles, as the McLean ring seems to be.

As a first step towards the reversal of the wrongs done to Ohio by the Democratic rule of the last three years, the legislature has passed once more the law to tax the liquor traffic. As there is no longer a Democratic majority on the Supreme bench, the law is not likely to be found unconstitutional this time. It was this partisan decision which did more to destroy the hold of the Democrats on the cities of Ohio than any other act of theirs. It not only cut off an important source of revenue, and established free trade in whiskey, but made the cities liable to repay large sums already collected from the liquor dealers.

Another step has been to repeal the partisan law by which a majority of the Congressmen from this Republican State were secured to the Democracy. It is believed that Ohio will send

twelve Republicans to the next House, instead of ten, as at present. This change is brought about simply by uniting adjacent counties in the same district, instead of assorting them purely with reference to partisan affinities.

The May report of the statistician of the Department of Agriculture contains an interesting chapter on the indebtedness of farmers in the cotton producing States. The replies from state agents to a circular on this subject sent out by Mr. Dodge show that the indebtedness is very large, the most burdensome part of it being that which is contracted for supplies furnished by merchants upon a mortgage of the growing crops. While the rate of interest is nominally limited by law, it is practically often raised by indirect means to a figure three or four times as high as the legal rate. This is especially the case where supplies are furnished on credit to the poorer class of tenant farmers, who not only have to pay 25 to 50 per cent. more than the cash price for what they buy, but are also obliged to sell their crop to the creditor who holds the mortgage on it. The estimate of the rate for North Carolina is 25 per cent., including the advanced prices of supplies furnished; for South Carolina, 15 per cent.; for Georgia, 50 per cent. on the price of advances and 10 per cent. interest on past due indebtedness; for Florida, 16 per cent.; for Alabama, 50 per cent. increase on the price for goods and 20 per cent. on mortgages; for Mississippi, 15 per cent. on advances, without reference to increase of prices, and 10 per cent. on general indebtedness; for Louisiana, 15 per cent., besides higher prices of goods and more advances by country merchants; for Texas, 12 per cent. nominal interest for supplies charged at an excess of 25 to 50 per cent.; for Arkansas, 10 per cent. by contract on supplies, charged on extra profit of 40 per cent. It appears that a large proportion of cotton planters are in debt for current supplies, and that the loss resulting amounts in some States to \$5,000,000 per annum, absorbing nearly or quite all the profits of production, while the soil is wearing away with the lives of the cultivators for the benefit of the commercial class.

This unfortunately always has been the condition of the cotton-planting class. Nor is it likely to improve until a free banking system enables the planter to profit fairly by the improvement in the condition of labor though the abolition of slavery. What slavery did before the war, the refusal of free banking has been doing since its close.

A NEW YORK jury has decided to believe a detective who swore that Alderman Jaehne confessed to him that he had taken a bribe of \$20,000, rather than believe Jaehne's unqualified denial in the court. There were so many circumstances to confirm the detective's story, and the alderman's own record was so bad, that the jury had not much choice. But it is unfortunate that there is not equally strong evidence against the other aldermen who took bribes from the promoters of the Broadway railway. If there were, the number of the old aldermen going at large would be exactly two—one of each party, and the Democrat a Tammany man!

As in New England, the great textile manufacturers of Philadelphia are uniting to resist unreasonable demands on the part of associations of the working men. The usefulness of such a union of capitalists will depend very much on the spirit which animates it. If it be characterized by a temper of mere class antagonism, it will only add to the difficulties of the situation. If it show an honest desire to do whatever is just and fair, and a readiness to submit moot-points to impartial arbitration, it may do much to pave the way out of the chaos of conflicting interests.

It is now as good as certain that Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule Bill will not pass its second reading in the present House. What will follow its defeat is uncertain. If the united opposition should secure a handsome majority, the traditions of the constitution entitle them to assume the reins of government. If—as is more likely—they should have only a small majority, then Mr. Gladstone, by force of the same traditions, has the option between resigning office and dissolving Parliament. But there is no absolute constraint on the sovereign to agree to a dissolution when the ministry has been defeated. And it is quite certain that if the Queen can prevent a dissolution she will do so. But we do not give credence to the story that she has sent Mr. Gladstone a message ask-

ing him not to dissolve. That story seems to rest upon a misconception of their relations.

In case of a dissolution Mr. Gladstone may secure an overwhelming majority in the new House of Commons. All the indications show that his power over the constituencies is unbroken, and that the Whigs and Radicals who have deserted him would have to pay for this revolt. The Democratic vote in the great towns is heartily favorable to Home Rule, and trustful of Mr. Gladstone as a man to give it the right shape. The danger would be that the Whigs would act outside the House as they have acted within it, and vote for the Tory candidates in such numbers as to give Lord Salisbury a majority. But we doubt if they have the strength and determination to turn the scale against Mr. Gladstone. For the third time we venture to predict the outcome of an English general election. We predict that in case of a dissolution Mr. Gladstone will defeat all his opponents and secure a small majority.

In case of the accession of the recalcitrant Liberals to power, what do they mean to do about it? We are told that they have a scheme of Home Rule for Ireland which will not be open to the objection brought against Mr. Gladstone's. Mr. Smalley has the goodness to give us the only statement which even approaches information as to its character. He says it will be on American rather than Gladstonian lines. If this means that they are ready to introduce the federative principle into the British constitution, then they are prepared to take a bolder step than any of Mr. Gladstone's. If it only means that the Irish members are to be allowed to meet in Dublin after or before the session of the imperial Parliament, and to take care of certain secondary matters, then they are not proposing any genuine Home Rule for Ireland, and the Irish will not accept it as such. They will continue in the imperial Parliament only to make every English minister's life a burden to him, and to block legislation on every subject until they have secured what the Irish people want and have a right to ask. We do not envy Lord Hartington and Mr. Goschen the task they have undertaken in defeating the Premier. What an Irish minority of eighty-six members, solidly working together, can do to upset the House of Commons has not yet been tested. But it will be if the new ministry be formed, and the eighty-six will be not without help from the lighter members of Mr. Gladstone's own following, though not from their chief.

It is reported that the Whig measure contemplates the isolation of Ulster from the rest of the island, even in the scanty concessions made to the Irish demand for self-government. Unless the measure at the same time shall reduce the dimensions of Ulster by annexing several of its counties to Leinster and Connaught, this will avail nothing to the noisy Orange minority. Whatever Ulster was in the past, the province is now nationalist in a majority of its counties, and a representative body fairly elected by its people would make its first demand to be annexed to the rest of the island.

The Orangemen are reported to be aiming to resist any decision of the constituted and constitutional authority which may subject them to the control of a national Irish Parliament. They will fight the Empire in the interests of imperial unity,—the Queen in the interest of the Crown. As Mr. Gladstone denies to the Irish Parliament any jurisdiction over the army, navy and police, the newly-constituted government would have nothing to do with the suppression of an Orange uprising in Ulster. It is the whole power of the British Empire which this hundred thousand malcontents would antagonize and provoke. The Nationalists would look on calmly while the veterans of the British army occupied Belfast and Armagh, searched Lurgan and Portadown for arms, and arrested Orange rectors and heads of lodges for treason against the Crown! The Ulster people are not very wise, but they have sense enough to know this. Their bluster is not a preparation for armed resistance. It is merely "talk to Buncombe," with the object of influencing English legislation against Home Rule.

THE double rôle which France has played for some time past, of an atheistic Republic at home, but the orthodox champion of Roman Catholic missions abroad, seems likely to come to an end. The Emperor of China has taken steps to have the Roman Catholic missions in that country entirely dis severed from France's diplomacy. To effect this he has entered into direct relations with the Papacy, and is negotiating a sort of concordat which will make French intervention of no use to the church. The Papacy is not unwilling to accede to this, as the course taken by French statesmen at home has not made the Roman Court disposed to favor the extension of French influence abroad. In a few years the Roman Catholic missions will cease to be centres of French diplomatic intrigue.

SPAIN has her wish and is joyful. The posthumous child of King Alfonso proves to be a son, so that Spain is freed from the dangers which attend a female reign, like those of Isabella and Christina. The event also weakens the chances of the Carlists, as the fact that Don Carlos has a male heir would have strengthened considerably the popularity of his line, if the new comer had been a girl and not a boy.

AN American Baptist missionary, writing from Burmah, gives us the means to judge of the results of the annexation of the country to the British Empire. He says:

"Not only in Upper Burmah, but in the lower country long possessed by the British, the spirit of opposition to foreign rule is finding expression in deeds of violence. The whole country is overrun with savage bands, half robbers, half patriots, who burn and kill and plunder all whom they suspect of being associated in commercial interests or religion with the detested foreigners. Every day there are reports of terrible cruelties, and even within a few hours of Rangoon many villages have been devastated. Insurrection is everywhere being stirred up, and its most terrible consequences are being visited upon the native Christians, the warfare having, indeed, largely developed in its religious aspects, and being accompanied by exhibitions of most heroic fanaticism. In the nature of things, with dense jungles furnishing easy means of escape, the British forces cannot cope with these quick-moving bands, and the future prospect is by no means bright."

THE GREEK PLAY.

THE performance of the Greek comedy—the Acharnians of Aristophanes—by the students of the University of Pennsylvania on Friday and Saturday last was a success beyond the highest expectations of the public, and even of the gentlemen who had undertaken its management. The impression produced was so marked that a repetition of the performance was at once proposed, and would doubtless have been cordially welcomed. We have met with all sorts of critics who were in the audience at one or both of the performances, and there is but one opinion as to the great and marked success of the performance in every essential feature.

The selection of a comedy was open to question as an act of judgment, for the reason that wit and satire are always more local and temporary than are pathos and the other elements of a genuine tragedy. Euripides appeals to a wider audience than his great satirist. The Hecuba or the Iphigenia in Aulis would be more directly intelligible to a modern audience than any play of Aristophanes could ever be made. There was much in the performance and its effect upon the audience to justify this apprehension. Very much of Aristophanes' fun—his atrocious libels on the most respectable members of the War party in Athens, his subtle, but to the Athenians of that day, perfectly intelligible, flings at the mismanagement of the war, his keen satire of the lachrymose element in the tragedies of Euripides, his audacious puns and manufactured words—these were lost upon the bulk of the hearers. It was only the broadly comic features of the play which elicited the outburst of laughter which must have attended the same performance in Athens from first to last. And yet by good acting and a well-trained chorus the performance was made not only highly attractive but broadly intelligible. With the help of the *libretto*,

the main motive of the play was made unmistakable from first to last, and it was proved that even a Greek comedy might be a source of keen enjoyment as a modern spectacle.

"The Acharnians" was presented in the Athenian Theatre, B. C. 425, the year of the sixth and last annual invasion and devastation of Attica by a Spartan army. Pericles had been dead four years; Cleon, the comedian's bitterest foe, was in the height of his power after his success at Sphacteria; but reverses in Boeotia had strengthened the Peace party in Athens. To contrast the miseries and wretchedness of the sixth year of war with "the piping days of peace," when the comfortable Athenian sat under his own vine and fig-tree, was the object of the comedy. This was made the easier by the peculiarities of the economic position of the Athenians. Attica was rather a poor country, without the natural resources to maintain her population proportionally to their ideas of comfort. The position of the city at the head of the anti-Persian League had drawn thither a much greater population than the natives numbered. It brought also great sums of money, of which much was spent in encouraging trades and arts, and developing industries distinct from agriculture. As a consequence the people had become accustomed to look to their poorer and more agricultural neighbors for the supply of luxuries and even necessities. The Chersonesus was their wheat field; Megaris their truck garden; Boeotia their fish pond and game preserves. The war put an end to the whole of this. It devastated the rural parts of Attica, and drove the people within the city walls. It cut off commerce with the Boeotian and Megaric enemies. It reduced the city to such supplies as could be brought in by sea, on which Athens was still the unrivaled mistress. In a word, the citizens ceased to live on the fat of the land, and came down to hard-tack and salt fish.

To the instinct which rebels against such changes, Aristophanes made his appeal. He is for peace on the lowest grounds on which a peace policy was ever defended. It is not the horrors and passions of war which he wishes to impress upon his audience. It is not the famine of the people,—for that he cannot allege. It is the wretchedness of the bill of fare to which they have come through the war's continuance, and the contrast of peace's ease with war's hardships. It is true that he attacks the conduct of the war as stupid, wasteful and preposterous; true that he pleads in the *parabasis* for a juster treatment of the veterans who have fought for Athens by sea and land. But the main contention is from the cook-shop point of view. He addresses the palate and stomach rather than the heart or the reason. He was just the man to believe this would prove an effective argument. The Athenians gave his play the first prize, but they rejected his counsel.

THE ENCYCLOPEDIA BRITANNICA.

WHEN the Blacks announced a new edition of this ponderous but excellent work they proposed to complete it in twenty-one volumes, which, excluding one of dissertations, was an additional volume over the eighth edition. The twentieth volume of the ninth edition has arrived in America, and with it comes the promise that the republication will be finished in four more volumes. Before turning to an examination of the book just issued, a few words may be said upon the general character of the work, and upon its relation to American interests. Two expedients lie before the encyclopedist in editing; one is to multiply the subject-titles to cover the greater part of the field of learning, giving to each the shortest treatment; the other is to group related topics under a single heading, and thus open the way to consecutive writing by eminent scholars, who will seldom condescend to work of mere definition and statistics. In the former case the encyclopedia tends towards a technical dictionary, and yet it cannot become such to the extent of making an index superfluous without ceasing to give that connected information which distinguishes an encyclopedia from a lexicon. American encyclopedias have usually pursued this attempt at the definition of multiplied subjects, and their weakness lies in the absence of critical writing, in the dislocation of related subjects, and the impossibility of extending the list of separate topics so as to cover the whole field of learning. They need copious indexing to display their contents

to research, and as long as this apparatus of inquiry is required to exhibit their full scope, they might advantageously abandon the plan of dictionary headings for one which gives freer range to scholarship and less to compilers. The Britannica errs in the opposite direction. In it there are already a hundred treatises from a single hand which would make fair duodecimo volumes of from 250 to 600 pages in good legible type, such as THE AMERICAN uses in most of its columns. The objections to such continuous articles can be entirely overcome by faithful indexing, while the immense gain of critical treatment is saved by presenting items of information in their proper relation to the whole subject which they illustrate. In the Britannica, however, the editing has labored under this great mistake,—it has given separate articles to subjects already included in its greater treatises. For example Frederick William IV. of Prussia is as amply described in the history of Germany as under his own name. The Quadrumana appear with considerable minutiae under Mammals and under Ape. And this list might be very much extended. The result is that there is a large amount of repetition in the work which could well be spared to the profit of the buyer. This needless feature has undoubtedly grown out of a lingering and antiquated notion that an alphabetically arranged work of reference ought to be superior to the need of an index. As soon as the necessity for careful indexing is recognized in preparing such books, the business of editing will become freer and better.

Among the qualities of the Britannica which one hardly knows whether to admire warmly, or to score against it, is the advanced position which its leading scientific and critical articles take. They are not a simple compendium of the achievement of scholars, but they are a propaganda of personal opinions. These come, it is true, from exceedingly able men, and are written with elegance and exhaustive research. Nothing can exceed Meldola's treatise on Organic Chemistry, or Clerk Maxwell on Capillary Action, or Vines on Vegetable Physiology and Reproduction for example. But the value of such aggressive and specialized work in an encyclopaedia is doubtful. It is splendid and costly, but no specialist ever relies upon an encyclopaedia for his working literary apparatus, while the articles which are addressed to his understanding are too recondite and technical for the general reader. In the one case the purchaser buys a vast amount of extraneous matter to get that latest research which his special periodicals furnish, and in the other he buys a huge mass of erudition which he cannot comprehend.

In relation to American matters, the Edinburgh editors have shown the salutary effect upon them of the American Reprint and its supplements. In the first five or six volumes no American pen was employed at all, with the exception of J. D. Whitney on California, and Prof. Wilson of Toronto on Canada. After the great controversy in our courts between the Blacks and the Reprint was decided in favor of the latter, and amicable arrangements were reached between the two, the number of American pens employed by the Edinburgh editors greatly increased. Of nearly eighty, four-fifths have been employed on the last eight volumes, and the result has been a more respectful and thorough, and, we may even say scholarly, consideration of American topics.

The volume just published maintains the unparalleled standard of research and rhetoric which have characterized the preceding volumes. In fact the determination to show original and recent work comes out at times in an embarrassing way. Mr. Davis, in his article on the Reformation, in order to cover some minute specification gives dates for the Diet of Worms in 1521 and of Ratisbon in 1541 which differ from those in the article on Luther. Both are correct, but the fact that these diets extended over the whole period between the differing dates nowhere appears. Schiller-Szinessy, who seems to have had charge of all the rabbinical subjects of the recent volumes, exhibits his old friends of the Mishnah under spellings which can be recognized only by the learned when he writes of Rabbin, Rashi, Rabbah, etc.

In the twentieth volume only three American writers appear, and they are A. M. Wellington and S. W. Dunning on Railways, and W. E. Forster on Rhode Island. However, American biography has received more than its customary share of notice, as in the articles on Dr. Ramsay of South Carolina, Rittenhouse, the Massachusetts Quincys, Roebling the engineer, John Randolph and others. The insular peculiarity comes out in the account of Rittenhouse, which, while admitting that Troughton acknowledged his priority in introducing the spider-web lines into the micrometer, hunts up an old Abbé to wear the American's plumes.

George Saintsbury writes with brilliancy about the French poets, Rabelais, Racine, Ronsard, etc., but he has tripped here and there from pure carelessness even while correcting the errors of previous writers. When he makes James the Fifth of Scotland marry Marguerite of France who was Ronsard's patron, instead of her sister Madeleine, one feels sure that he knew better and that he did not read over the proofs. Alfred Newton appears again

with his birds, and compels fresh admiration for his elegant editing and thoroughness. He seems to have had charge of all the ornithology in the work, and so skilfully have he and his colleague, Kitchen Parker, managed, that their special articles are not reproductions of matter in their general articles on Birds and Ornithology.

The most original as well as the most abstruse treatise in the volume is Professor Ward's Psychology. He furnishes an original classification for the facts of consciousness from sensation to volition, and amuses as well as puzzles the reader by his grotesque saltations from brute experiences to algebraic formulæ. The article is ingenious, aggressive, but not conclusive in so abstruse and controverted a field.

In the biological sciences the articles on Reproduction, Reptiles and Respiration are almost without a blemish. To name their authors is to justify this praise. They are Geddes on Zoological Reproduction; Vines on Vegetable Reproduction; Gunther and Mivart on Reptiles, and Prof. Gamgee on Respiration.

Ingram, of Trinity College, Dublin, who wrote the article on Political Economy in the previous volume with a breadth and eloquence and a recognition of French, Italian and German research exceedingly rare among British students of the science which they both made and called the dismal one, writes of Ricardo with a sagacious and just measurement of this London broker.

Rome furnishes occasion for the longest articles, and we have Dr. Storm on the Civil Law; Prof. Sellar on the Literature; Pelham on ancient and Villari on recent History, and Middleton on Topography and Archaeology. All these five articles are examples of brilliant condensation and critical acumen. H. F. Pelham surprises the reader by classing Tiberius among the better emperors, and slips rarely on a date, but more often annoys one by wrong references to his authorities. In a score of instances the facts he alleges from Livy, Tacitus and Varro can be found in those authors, but not where his annotations say they are.

The reviewer naturally dwells upon the more important labors which have made this volume, but its popular information on historical, literary and social subjects is in excess of the usual proportions.

In the forthcoming Reprint the blemishes we have noticed and others not here enumerated will be corrected or explained, and omissions of Americana be supplied by scores of annotations and fifty pages of Supplemental articles.

D. O. K.

THE ACHARNIANS.

IT was with a view not merely to the revivifying of a literary masterpiece that the undergraduates of the University of Pennsylvania, under guidance of an able committee of Professors and Alumni, undertook to perform the Acharnians of Aristophanes, but also, as their circular of announcement stated, to give an American public a glimpse at least of one side of the life of the gay and generous Greeks. But even in the case of comedy certain facts must be remembered that will necessarily modify the impressions received from witnessing such a performance. The old Attic comedy, as it is called, to which the extant plays of Aristophanes belong, sprang up under the influence of the popular revelry of the Dionysiac festivals, as tragedy owed its origin to the more solemn and religious side of the same worship. In the revels the villagers, quite drunk as became the worshipers of the wine god, formed processions and indulged in scurrilous abuse of every one they met,—abuse that was returned to the best of the respondent's ability. In this abuse, which would naturally be liveliest against any unpopular or merely notorious character, no exaggeration, no coarseness, no obscenity even of expression was shrunk from; it was all for fun, anything to raise a laugh and keep the revel going. Out of this by steps that we cannot trace came the old comedy, and the stamp of its origin remained in the exaggeration of its personal satire, the frequent grossness of its expression; its object too was primarily to amuse, and the amusement must be given in language suited to the character of the day. Considerable allowance must therefore be made for this exaggeration in the conclusions we draw from these comedies either as to the people in general or as to individuals in particular; to take their representations literally would be as unfair in us as it would be in a foreigner to accept Mark Twain's "Gilded Age" as a faithful picture of ourselves; a thing, which, by the way, has been done.

The choice of the Acharnians out of all the plays of Aristophanes has much to recommend it. It is comparatively short, the language is not difficult, and above all there are to be found in it most of the topics upon which the poet delighted to exercise his powers of invective. Another reason for preferring it to some of the other plays, and a reason that is, I think, of no small consequence, especially as regards the representation of it to a modern audience, lies in the fact that the chorus is composed of men, and

not of birds, or frogs, or wasps, the grotesqueness of whose appearance could hardly fail to monopolize the attention of the house, so that the performance would be more than likely to produce the effect of a travesty rather than of a reproduction. Let anyone that has seen it recall to his mind the disgusting impression produced by the ordinary presentation of the "weird sisters" in Macbeth, and he will have some conception of what I mean; only in the case of Aristophanes the effect would be worse, inasmuch as the birds or frogs would be present the whole play through. It is true that the Acharnians is inferior to other plays of Aristophanes, notably to the Birds and Frogs, in its lyric portions, and it is equally true that the greatest and highest quality of the poet's genius consists just in that gift of lyric power that enables him to pour forth in "strains of unpremeditated art" those "native wood notes wild" which seem to sing themselves without effort or volition of man. But after all, this very elimination of the most wonderful trait of the poet, is, for modern representation, an advantage rather than a defect. Who could hope adequately to render the lightness, the airiness, the fairy notes, (if I may say so), of those delightful songs, not to speak of the difficulties that would necessarily arise from the (to modern ears) strange and peculiar rhythms in which they are composed. It is a good thing generally to restrain one's efforts within the limits of the possible, and not to attempt what is certainly exceedingly difficult and very likely impossible. On the score of the chorus and of the choral songs, therefore, which in this play scarcely go beyond the comparatively simple Cretic rhythms, the choice of the committee in charge is to be heartily approved. Again, apart from the exceptional position of the hero as having made a private peace with Sparta, in no play of Aristophanes are the characters and scenes so generally drawn from the actual every-day life of Athens and Greece; this fact and the comparatively large number of the characters makes it a more complete picture of Attic life than is to be found in any other play, and, though other plays may give us separate traits that are more distinctive and peculiar to the Greeks as Greeks, it may be a question whether what we need is not rather proof of a similarity of Greeks to other men, than evidences of dissimilarity, which we are prone enough to presuppose and even greatly exaggerate.

The plot of the play, if plot it may be said to have, is very simple. The hero *Dikaiopolis*, the representation of righteous statecraft, is vexed at seeing everything in Athens at sixes and sevens: to counterbalance heaps of vexations he can count up but a few grains of pleasure. Ever punctual in the performance of his political duties, he is in the *Ekklesia* at early morning, the hour appointed for the meeting, but he is alone; no one else but shirks his duty as long as he may. Worn out with waiting he longs to get away to his farm, far from the city, that maddens him with the noise of its street cries, and the mismanagement he sees on every hand. Finally at noon the people burst in, a disorderly crowd scrambling for their seats. Angry as he was before, he bursts out with indignant reproaches addressed to the presiding officers, when *Amphitheos*, a hero delegated of the gods to negotiate peace, is roughly hustled out by the constables. But when men who have pocketed large pay for an embassy to Persia without ever going there, introduce a sham commissioner of the king, who makes sham promises of pecuniary aid for the war, and when, notwithstanding the exposure of the trick, the pretended commissioner is solemnly conducted to an official dinner with the council, *Dikaiopolis* can stand it no longer, but commissions *Amphitheos*, who had stolen back again, to negotiate for himself and his household a private peace with Sparta. Another ambassador is introduced. He pretends to have been sent to *Sitalkes*, the Thracian, and to come back with large promises of aid from that king, as an earnest of which he brings forward what he is pleased to call a Thracian army. *Dikaiopolis* can endure no more, but cries out that he has felt a drop of rain and so puts an end to this shameful business by forcing an adjournment of the assembly. *Amphitheos* now comes running on with samples of peace of various duration, of which naturally *Dikaiopolis* chooses the longest, of thirty years, and then goes home to make ready to celebrate the Rural Dionysia. But *Amphitheos* was closely pursued by enraged Acharnians, hard-handed charcoal burners, sons of oak, eager to stone to death the man that should bring in peace, and so defraud them of their revenge for ravaged lands and houses destroyed by the enemy in their rural deme. The clamors of the chorus are stayed by *Dikaiopolis'* solemn proclamation of "Silence," as he begins the celebration of the Dionysia. The Phallic procession, made up of his family and slaves, with his daughter as basket-bearer, issues from the houses. After prayer to Dionysos, the procession moves on, *Dikaiopolis* himself singing the Phallic song.

It may be well to say here, by way of parenthesis, that in the performance this scene was necessarily cut down by reason of the grossness in many parts of it, and the most characteristic feature of the procession was for the same reason necessarily eliminated.

The Phallic song itself, though of a character that no modern audience could stand in a comprehensible tongue, was retained, probably because it could not well be pruned without being cut out altogether and without it the scene would hardly have had a *raison d'être*; the singing of it, too, doubtless for necessary reasons, was handed over to the chorus, instead of *Dikaiopolis*, to whom it properly belongs. This was somewhat unfortunate, because it is the last line of this song, "the shield shall be hung up in the smoke," that breaks the restraint the Acharnians had hitherto felt in presence of the religious rites. Hereupon the Acharnians attack *Dikaiopolis*, and furiously refuse to listen to anything he may have to say in his own defence, though he offers to speak with his head on a block, at peril of his life. Seizing at last a charcoal basket, the pet of the grimy deme, he threatens to stab it through; to save their darling they consent to hear him. Cautious from experience, *Dikaiopolis*, before agreeing insists upon proof that they have thrown away all their stones. But first they must let him dress himself up in garments of woe, properly betokening the risk he is in. This bitter satire upon Athenian juries, before whom a woeful garb with tears and supplications was regarded as the mainstay of a defendant's cause, receives a hugely comical turn when the accused is made to ask the court for leave to go and dress himself in becoming fashion. Permission is granted, with the assurance that even the cloak of darkness shall not save him. But where to get dress wretched enough to move the stony-hearted Acharnians? To whom should *Dikaiopolis* turn, but to the poetic sophist and master of pathos, Euripides, who, (according to Aristophanes), had degraded the tragic stage by the introduction of quibbling arguments, but won by the exhibition of heroes in most unheroic rags, and by putting in their mouths complaints and wailings, if anything, less heroic still. To him *Dikaiopolis* goes, and then ensues a most comical scene in which Euripides' whole wardrobe of misery is shaken out, as it were, and displayed to the amused spectators. The contrast between the tragic tones of the poet, vexed that his tragedy-making is interrupted, and the eager persistence of *Dikaiopolis*, who will not be put off till he gets what he wants, is exquisite. An unhappy allusion to his pot-herb-selling mother is at length more than the poet can stand, and an order to his slave to close his castle gates ends the scene.

But *Dikaiopolis* still wavers, and it is only after some earnest communing with himself, that he screws his courage to the sticking place and faces the Acharnians. His speech is a clever piece of special pleading, in which the whole blame of the war is cast upon Athens, and in particular upon Perikles, who, angered at the stealing of two slaves of his mistress Aspasia, by Megarians, had a law passed forbidding all dealings with that people, and so brought all Greece by the ears; for Megara in distress appealed to Sparta. Had the case been reversed, Athens would have done the same thing. (In the play as presented the cutting of this speech, which was perhaps unavoidable, is particularly unfortunate, in that the whole story of the stealing of Aspasia's girls being eliminated, it reads as if Perikles fumed and stormed because Megarian property found in Athens was confiscated as belonging to an enemy.) Half the Acharnians are convinced and fall to blows with the other half, who call lustily on *Lamachos*, the fighting captain, to come and help them. Historically *Lamachos* was a good general but a poor man, (his poverty is sneered at in our play), and possessed of no controlling influence in the management of state affairs; but, in spite of these facts his reputation as a stubborn fighter, the French would call him *une épée*, the opportunity for punning offered by his name, *Lamachos*, eager for the fray, led Aristophanes to pitch upon him as the representation of the war-spirit, the Jingoism of the day. The haughty tone of *Lamachos* is met by the mockery of *Dikaiopolis*, who laughs at him and his arms. The difficulty of *Lamachos*, who cannot conceive that his awful figure should be a laughing stock, shields him for a time from these shafts of sarcasm, but at last he is hit, and then he bursts forth with the indignant question, "You beggar, how dare you?" "I a beggar? an honest citizen, no office seeker; a soldier I, but you a hireling officer, chosen by fools that you may draw pay for your expeditions and your embassies! How long is it since you could pay your debts?" This is too much for *Lamachos*, who rushes off proclaiming inextinguishable war against the Peloponnesians: *Dikaiopolis* follows with a counter proclamation of peace and freedom of intercourse. In the parabasis that follows, the chorus leader harangues the people on the excellent service his poet has rendered Athens. The great King himself has heard of him, and has declared that whichever city has such a treasure must needs conquer. And the Spartans too, why do they want Aigina, but that by getting the poet's birthplace they may get the poet too? Let Athens recognize his merits and hold on to him!

In the second part of the parabasis, after a choral song, the Athenians are lectured for their lack of respect to old age in allowing the young men to dare them to trial and browbeat them in the law courts. There was a day when this could not have

been done. *Dikaiopolis* has won the day: *Lamachos* is driven off and the Acharnians, no longer divided, look on in admiration at his success. He comes forth, officially opens his markets to all Greeks, and withdraws. The first that appears is a half-starved Megarian, who can find nothing to dispose of for a little food but his two daughters. These he puts in a sack, and having marked their faces with pigs' snouts and furnished them with pigs' feet, calls upon *Dikaiopolis* to come and buy. After a good deal of chaffing, he disposes of them for a little salt and a bunch of garlic, only sorry that he had not brought his wife and mother to the same excellent market. A sycophant who threatens to have the Megarian wares seized by the police, is rapidly disposed of by *Dikaiopolis* and his market clerks, three stout fellows. *Dikaiopolis* carries off his purchases, and the chorus sing a song in praise of his good fortune. Next comes a Boiotian, with all sorts of dainties from his native place, and chief among them a large eel, the queen of lake Copais. *Dikaiopolis* seizes the eel as market tax and buys the rest, but the Boiotian will only exchange them for wares his own country does not produce. Neither sardines nor crockery will do, but by a happy thought, *Dikaiopolis* suggests a sycophant, the peculiar product of Attica. The Boiotian jumps at the offer, and a sycophant, who comes in the nick of time, is bundled up like so much earthenware and carried off in triumph. *Lamachos* would now gladly buy some of these dainties, but there's no such luck for him: *Dikaiopolis* flatly refuses to sell, shoulders his prizes, and enters his house. The chorus, carried away at sight of the good fortunes of *Dikaiopolis*, now are utterly discarding war,—peace, peace, is their desire. The feast of pitchers is proclaimed by the herald, and roused by the sound, *Dikaiopolis* calls up all his household to make ready the dainties he has just purchased. To this delightful occupation he now gives himself heart and soul, while the chorus, their mouths watering at the sight, congratulate him on his success. But the news of his peace has got abroad, and others would fain have a share in it. A poor farmer, who has lost his yoke of oxen by a raid of the Boiotians, and wept himself blind for them, comes first: but hardly a word is to be got out of *Dikaiopolis*, whose mind is given up to his kitchen; and as to peace not a drop of that is to be had for love or money. A bridegroom, loath to have his honeymoon broken up by a summons to the war, sends his best man for a small allowance of peace, but in vain; the bridesmaid alone succeeds in getting a drop or two for the bride. A messenger suddenly rushes in and summons *Lamachos* to take the field at once, for Boiotian raiders have burst into Attica. The lamentations of *Lamachos* and taunts of *Dikaiopolis* are interrupted by the entrance of another messenger who brings an invitation to *Dikaiopolis* to feast with priest of Dionysos. Here follows a curious scene in which line by line the preparations of *Lamachos* for his expedition are paired off, and comically contrasted with those of *Dikaiopolis* for the feast. Once or twice *Lamachos* loses patience and attacks *Dikaiopolis*, but it is of no use, the man of peace gets the better of him, and at last both go off. The chorus sings them a farewell strain in a march-measure and then indulges in an attack upon an unknown poet of the day, perhaps a rival of the author's.

The closing scene follows. *Lamachos*, his ankle out of joint, and his head broken, is carried in, groaning in pain and lamenting his hard fate, only hoping *Dikaiopolis* may not see him in his sad plight. But *Dikaiopolis*, who has won the wineskin over all competitors in the drinking bout, comes in at the same time drunk and supported by a couple of hetærae, to give them a polite name. The groans of the wounded *Lamachos* are jeeringly echoed by *Dikaiopolis*, until the wounded soldier is carried off to the surgeon's. Peace has triumphed, the war party, personified in *Lamachos*, is utterly crushed; *Dikaiopolis* with his attendants and the chorus in his train, dances off with shouts of triumph to get the wineskin he has won.

Such is the plot of this admirable play, one of the best of the extant works of the poet, and the earliest of them all, having been acted at the Lenæan festival in 425 B. C. The reasons why this of all the works of Aristophanes seems practically well adapted for a modern repetition have already been given, and it only remains to speak of the performance itself, as given on the 14th and 15th inst. It goes without saying, even with those who are not very familiar with Greek, that, owing to the peculiar origin of Greek comedy and the character of the festivals at which it was performed, no such play could be produced in our times without a good deal of cutting, if not for the sake of the audience, who might not be much harmed, then at least for the sake of the performers. It must be remembered, too, that the matter of cutting a play without spoiling it is not always so easy as those who have not tried it may perhaps fancy. In this case those who had charge of preparing the stage-text deserve to be congratulated for the generally happy way in which the cutting has been done. One scene was shorn of some of its most distinctive features, but this could not be helped, for those features were inadmissible, and the scene could not be

cut out bodily. Here and there a word that might perhaps have been stricken out was left in, but only in one case, in the long speech of *Dikaiopolis* in defence of his peace, was there, as has already been said, an injudicious cutting that spoiled the logical connection. No attempt was made, as indeed none could have been expected, to reproduce a Greek representation of a Greek comedy. Not to speak of other difficulties in the way of such an attempt, and they are many and serious, especially for comedy, it may be questioned whether such an attempt would not have ended in a miserable burlesque. Except in the arrangement of the stage in two levels, the lower with the thymele in the middle for the chorus, the upper for the actors, and in the observance of the convention of right and left entrances, both necessary, it was the local color of Greece rather than of the Greek theatre that was aimed at; and the aim was remarkably well achieved, both in the dressing and in the scenery. The training of the performers must have been no easy task, either for themselves or for those who had them in charge, and the generally uniform excellence of their action and declamation reflects the greatest credit upon both.

One point deserves especial mention, the excellent way in which the performers used their voices; there was not one who failed to make himself heard distinctly, nor was there one whose voice gave out or even became perceptibly husky. In one's own language this is often difficult enough,—in a foreign one, in the midst of unfamiliar combinations of sound it is doubly so. There were one or two slips, an occasional lapse of memory, an *ou* substituted for a *me*, and an unfortunate *hina* that crept into the place of a *hopos*; the rhythm of the verse was at times lost, chiefly owing to that obstinate difficulty experienced by all young students in the omission of elided vowels; but these are small matters, how small only he perhaps can know who has tried for himself to declaim in a tongue with which he is not perfectly familiar, in which he cannot feel all those delicate shades of sense that absolutely elude translation. The role of *Dikaiopolis*, doubly difficult by reason of its extreme length, was exceedingly well sustained throughout; there was a slight lack perhaps of vivacity in the beginning, especially in the opening speech, but this disappeared in the dialogue where there was more room for action, and in the scenes with the Acharnians, with Euripides, and with the Megarian and Boiotian traders the acting was very well done. As a rule, the comic portions were better done than the vehement. In the first scene for instance, with *Lamachos*, the fun that is poked at the grim soldier and his arms was excellently rendered, but there was not energy enough in the final denunciation of the mercenary officer who would keep up the war merely to fill his own pockets; in the last scene of the play for a man who had drunk so much wine, the hero was rather too steady on his feet. Notable among the minor actors were the Megarian and Boiotian who put more life into their small parts than could have been expected; the triumphant air with which the latter carried off the bundled-up sycophant was very comic. The old farmer too, little as he had to do, did that little very effectively. The gem of the piece, however, was decidedly the declamation of the parabasis by the leader of the chorus; the rhythm was excellently preserved throughout, and that without falling into a sing-song style, an achievement particularly difficult in the lilting anapaestic measure, and the sense was brought out in a way that would have been admirable had the declaimer been speaking in his native language.

Of the music, from lack of a musical ear, I do not feel competent to speak; this much I may say, that the rhythm, for which I have an ear, especially in the oft-recurring Cretic measures, seemed to me remarkably well preserved in the music, at least so far as the movement is concerned. Beyond this it becomes me to keep silence and listen to the verdict of more competent judges.

To sum up, the representation was a great and deserved success,—deserved because it had evidently been worked for faithfully and strenuously; and the University, the committee in charge, and the performers, one and all, have a right to be proud of what they have done.

W. A. LAMBERTON.

REVIEWS.

POETS AND PROBLEMS. TENNYSON; RUSKIN; BROWNING. By George Willis Cooke. 12mo. Pp. 388. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1886.

MR. COOKE first appeared before the reading world some four or five years ago as the author of a volume on Emerson and his philosophy, written from the standpoint of an avowed admirer and disciple. Subsequently he published a similar work of critical and biographical review on George Eliot. The work we have before us is similar in general plan of treatment to the others, but is necessarily more condensed to bring the three authors into one volume. Mr. Cooke has also been the author of some magazine

articles of note, of which we may mention a very careful and valuable contribution on the history and contributors of the *Dial*, the organ of the New England transcendentalists, which appeared in the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy*.

All his work has many elements of value. He is candid, fair-minded, conscientious in his verdicts, and anything but narrow in his canons of criticism. His work on Emerson was undoubtedly sympathetic, and his studies have been largely in the line of Emerson's intellectual progenitors. He is familiar with the great idealists of different ages, though we think it probable that his minute acquaintance is mainly with those of Germany. These affiliations have given his writings certain characteristics which it is easy to lay at the door of transcendentalism as a whole, and they are good, bad or indifferent according to circumstances. One of these is a certain reluctance to call a spade a spade. The transcendentalist vaguely dislikes to set a material foot on a material earth, and talks of abstractions instead of things. A moderately well-repressed but ever present tendency to soar runs through this book, which seems to exhibit a dismembered half of Emerson's influence, for Emerson could and did use Anglo-Saxon ungloried. Similar to this is the tendency to clap a symbolic meaning and interpretation on things that, to the best of our knowledge and belief, were never meant for such treatment. We scorn and deride the idea that Tennyson ever meant Arthur in his "Idyls" to be "the type of the heroic struggles of the soul towards perfect purity," or that "his mysterious birth, his struggles and adventures, and his mystical passing away, are intended to represent the conflicts of the soul with the corruptions and evils of the world." If it be urged nevertheless that the idea is there, it may be answered that so the idealist discovers for himself allegories in the figures of the carpet patterns and sees weird or beautiful shapes in the flames of the open grate.

In enlarging the circle of his critical judgments it seems to us that Mr. Cooke has lost the sharp definition of standpoint he had in his first work, or, to change the metaphor slightly (very pardonable, we think, in this connection), has spread it over so much ground that it has no depth. He was an avowed admirer of Emerson, and sought for beauties and noble thoughts in his works with the ardor of a disciple, using hardly a word of harsh criticism. He states plainly in this volume that the only true criticism is the sympathetic. But in trying to apply the sympathetic standard to men of widely different aims and diverse personality he has necessarily modified this position. He states again that he would examine each in the light of all others, and fix their relative position. But these are two sides of a medal—not to be seen at once. Only infinity could enter into sympathetic appreciation of all, and critical comparison of each with the other. To thoroughly appreciate a great artist, he contends, you must be in some measure a disciple, but in doing this you at once forfeit a point of your judicial independence. An attempt to ferret out every possible beauty, and on the other hand to consider an omission a fault is the outcome of this spirit in Mr. Cooke's work. His interpretation as a whole is therefore such as no one person would or could accept, and such as could hardly be predicated of one well-defined personality. We feel sure he did not really accept it himself, and that much of his writing is perfunctory statement of some aspects of his authors which seemed to be backed by a respectable weight of opinion.

In regard to his general opinion of the places of these three writers we have no large objections to offer. Indeed he qualifies his assertions himself amply enough to take the edge off of any objections. Tennyson, we think, has more of the poetic and artistic and less of the problematic than Mr. Cooke assigns him. We also have rather more admiration for the quality of his deeper thought than Mr. Cooke, who seems to dislike his somewhat agnostic tendencies. Browning he speaks of in superlatives, but of course this was necessary. No one would now dare to say anything which would, by implication, place him in one of those horrible categories which the Brownings have constructed for the unconverted and more especially the unconvertible. We are inclined to be satisfied with a very handsome allowance of the unparalleled obscurity of his writings. Ruskin, we think, he speaks of very justly. With much high praise he gives much merited condemnation and much moderate criticism, and had he held the book back from press a little longer would have had much more, for that eminent writer, philosopher and critic has lately been industriously making any but the most recent history untrustworthy as to these little points. We also value Mr. Ruskin's work very highly. He has been, as Charlotte Brontë said, a high priest of the ideal, and in an age of ultra-materialism, when such were sorely needed. He has also been true, steadfast, brave, consistent, and he has made himself heard and his influence felt by his overpowering earnestness, and has undoubtedly done much good. But he has been perverted and intolerant in his haughty heedlessness of details and necessary limitations, and grossly unjust to many earnest and able men.

That he should have been a power for good shows that civilization was in a condition where not hygienic treatment but therapeutic remedies were necessary. His distorted gospel could never have been one of the elemental forces of progress, and could only be useful in counteracting opposite tendencies of equally exaggerated direction.

We feel that we cannot more properly and instructively close this notice than by giving the following study in antithesis as a favorable sample of Mr. Cooke's critical acumen, and also to point a moral;—to wit, that this form of writing maintains about the same relation to the eternal verities that the couch of Procrustes did to his victims. We admit the nudge which it gives to attention, and we have often been forced to admit how close it can be made to come to truth in skilful hands, but we still think that in the ordinary course of nature some victims will be short and others long.

"Three men whose names occupy conspicuous places in recent English literature have represented the later effects of German idealism. These are Carlyle, Emerson and Browning, idealists all, but in a manner to bring out the emphatic individuality which they each exhibited. . . . In this group of men Carlyle is the greatest genius, Emerson the noblest personality and Browning the most original interpreter of life. . . . The first exalts intellect and force, the second conscience and intuition, the third feeling and spiritual insight. In Carlyle the great characteristic is strength, in Emerson sweetness, and in Browning light. It is Emerson we love, Browning we accept as a master, and Carlyle we revere for his genius."

KANT'S ETHICS. A Critical Exposition. By Noah Porter, President of Yale College. Pp. xv. and 249, 12mo. [Griggs' Philosophical Classics, Edited by Prof. G. S. Morris. Vol. V.] Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.

The great revival of interest in philosophy and its history which has occurred in this country since the War, has found no better expression than in this admirable series; and President Porter's volume is fully worthy of its predecessors. The subject he has chosen is one of the greatest interest. Kant is in many respects the most important ethical writer in modern times. The revolt against shallow theories of human knowledge which his "Critique of the Pure Reason" produced, was not more valuable than was his ethical doctrine as the signal of a similar revolt against the hedonistic ethics of the Age of Illumination. Indeed the two parts of his work mutually necessitate and sustain each other. The acknowledgment of a something in our knowledge which transcends our experience, necessitated the recognition of a "categorical imperative," which taught that the obligations of duty and of virtue were not dependent upon the pleasure which compliance produced.

Dr. Porter's method of treating the subject is first expository and then critical. He aims at giving the merely English reader the marrow of the two great treatises in which Kant set forth his doctrine, and at the same time to estimate its worth. He judges Kant from his point of view, which we must regard as lower than Kant's. Like the properly New England school of thinkers, he is a hedonist of a refined type. He is as severe as Kant was in his condemnation of the "sensual and self-indulgent Epicureanism" of the age of Frederick the Great. But he thinks—as did Plato and Calvin—that the motive to right doing is not to be sundered from the consequences of right doing, and that the higher pleasures of obedience to the commands of duty are to be given the place which sensualists assign to the lower pleasures of self-indulgence. He finds fault with Kant for confining the consequences of acts in his analysis to the external consequences only, and that he even covertly converts the categorical imperative into a maxim which properly belongs to the hedonistic school. For he translates the practical rule "Do only that which you could wish to have everyone do," into "Act as if the maxims of thy act were to become by thy will a law of nature." We do not think the objection, however ingenious, is well taken. Kant is not making his act depend on its actual but its ideal consequences. If a consistent disciple of Kant believed that he and all the rest of the race were doomed to perish an hour hence, he would go straight on in the same line of duty as though the race were to last for a million ages. There is nothing in this translation of the categorical imperative to prevent this. But the most exalted hedonism has regard to actual and not ideal consequences, and would be puzzled to discover the ground of moral obligation in the case we have supposed.

Another great merit of Kant's ethical philosophy, and one closely related to the doctrine of the categorical imperative, was the recognition of the freedom of the will, and of man's position as a free being above and apart from nature. But it is just here that Kantianism displays its characteristic weakness, in the divorce of liberty and nature. He divides where he should only have distinguished, being driven by a reaction against the current materialism to an extreme position. This was the defect detected by Hamann, Herder and Baader, just as the last touched another weak point when he questioned "the necessary blindness of the practi-

cal reason" in Kant's system. Kant's world is not a world of harmonies and concords, but a world of antitheses and contrasts. Hence the revolt of all genuinely practical natures like Goethe and Herder from his teachings.

Dr. Porter gives only a few pages to the treatment Kant's ethics have received at the hands of his successors. We could have wished for much more. Especially Schleiermacher's *Grundlinien* (1803) might have been shown to furnish a criticism of Kant as profound and far-reaching as anything in German literature.

R. E. T.

EVAN HARRINGTON. A NOVEL. By George Meredith. New Edition. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1886.

The distance between the strong, rough character-sketches of Cruikshank and the delicate boudoir art of DuMaurier is not greater than that between "Evan Harrington" and "the Bostonians," and both illustrate the influences that have impressed their generations, for Mr. Meredith was born in 1828. He was educated partly in Germany, and Germany in 1840 was not wholly given over to the clutches of science, and was still in some measure the land of romance and philosophy, the Germany that had taken hold of Carlyle. Mr. Meredith has not escaped the influence of Germany, and still more has he felt that of Carlyle.

Mr. Meredith is not a realist nor a naturalist. He has just a touch of the idealist, though his men and women are very robust, full-blooded creatures, and drawn in strong lines. In his books we are not conscious of inspecting through a microscope the skilful section of nerve-tissue that Mr. James delicately prepares for us, nor do we hear the cries of the quivering vivisectioned animal, such as Mr. Howells sometimes compels us to listen to. Mr. Meredith's sins are at the other extreme. He leans a little to the melodramatic, the characters are sometimes a trifle strained, and the style in places is obscure, rough, abrupt, with much philosophising in the manner of Carlyle; but there is a wholesomeness of standard, a vigor of expression, a strong grasp of certain truths of human nature that more than balance such faults.

"Evan Harrington" is not Mr. Meredith's best work. It is inferior to "The Ordeal of Richard Feverel" in dramatic power, in style, in interest of plot, and in delicacy of touch. One's sympathies are more strongly aroused by the "ordeal" of the noble boy, well-born, brought up on a merciless "system" by his philosophising father, than by the successful struggle of the son of a provincial tailor to marry a high-born heiress. Evan is not a bad fellow, manly and high-minded enough; but he has a weakness not uncommon in the "heroic" character, which does not usually abound in common-sense; he neglects the very obvious and immediate duty of an honorable man to explain his false position, and afterwards stoically performs monstrous works of supererogation and self-sacrifice for a principle, and this conduct in due time is of course rewarded by the heroine. The scheming countess with her little foreign languors and affectations is an admirable figure, as is also "Mrs. Mel," the stern embodiment of duty, and the cheery little hen-pecked brewer. The book has the weakness of most novels, that of opening with more strength than it closes; but, in spite of rather lengthy and dragging passages to fill out the relentless three volumes, there is a fresh, racy atmosphere through the pages, a vigorous wit and strong human sympathy with all classes of men, that make very refreshing reading. This new edition of Mr. Meredith's works in nine volumes, pleasant in type and size, is very welcome, and will extend the author's reputation beyond the hitherto limited circle of his admirers.

DISEASES OF THE DIGESTIVE ORGANS IN INFANCY AND CHILDHOOD; with Chapters on the Investigation of Disease and the General Management of Children. By Louis Starr, M. D. Pp. 385. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. 1886.

Dr. Louis Starr's treatise is a thoughtful, well-condensed, and carefully-written work, of which the contents answer well to the neat and attractive exterior. Probably no department of clinical medicine is less carefully worked up by the average graduate than that of children's diseases. Sick children, except those of the very poor, are usually treated at home, and the clinical student sees little of them. The treatment of children at the dispensaries is necessarily somewhat hurried, and is too often perfunctory. Very few students indeed have good opportunities for painstaking observation in this important class of cases. And yet there is no better means of the young practitioner's securing and retaining the *entrée* into good families than the reputation of having a good knowledge of children's diseases and of treating them with discrimination and sympathy. Dr. Starr's work is well abreast with the times, and contains the cream of the larger works on the same general subject. The first part, (that on "the investigation of disease") and the last, (Part III., treating of "the general management of children,") strike us as being of special excellence.

The whole work, however, is of high character throughout, and embodies not only the results of much study but the fruits of careful and original observation. The illustrations, though not numerous, are good and original.

It is not to be forgotten that probably over one-half the children born into the world die before reaching the age of five years. By far the greater proportion of these short-lived children are cared for as tenderly as the parents know how to care for them. The popular or non-professional aspect of the care of children in the nursery has latterly received no small amount of attention, and very considerable literature on the subject has grown up. Dr. Starr's work is, however, almost entirely devoted to the professional side of its subject; but the part which treats of "the general management of children" is so full of good sense, and so readily understood even by the non-professional mind, that its separate publication as a tract for popular use could not fail of accomplishing much good.

OUR LITTLE ANN. By the author of "Tip Cat," "Miss Toosey's Mission" and "Laddie." Boston: Roberts Bros. 1886.

Many people who write for children seem to have an impression that truth must be thoroughly diluted and sweetened before it is presented to the youthful mind, and that the facts of life should be carefully selected and arranged for their benefit. Now it is true that we do not wish to burden childish minds with the dark and perplexing side of life, and that therefore many truths of experience are wisely ignored for them; but it is best to manage this by exclusion, and to be quite honest and simple about the rest, with more or less of imagination in the treatment, instead of stringing a row of improbabilities and inconsistencies upon a thread of sentimentality.

"Little Ann" is a foolish and rather sentimental little love-story. The heroine at the age of nineteen or twenty, old enough to "know better," runs away from the kindest friends, who have given her a home and home love for five years, because she has dwelt upon some idle jest and fancies that the oldest son will wish to marry her on his return from China, while during the five years of his absence her heart has been given to the younger brother. So, instead of waiting like a sensible woman, until "Tom" shall give her an opportunity to explain that she cannot love him, which need not have surprised him very much as he had only known her for two weeks and had not exchanged any letters with her, she steals away from the house on the morning of his return without giving her friends any clew to her course or explanation of her conduct, a proceeding which naturally occasions them some surprise. Of course Fate or Providence watches over this wayward damsel. In a railway station she meets the ideal rich old gentleman, who immediately engages her as governess to his little grandson. At the end of five years the lover, who has preserved the image of "Little Ann" unalterably in his heart, appears just in time, by a happy accident, and saves Ann from marrying the kind old gentleman, who opportunely dies, joining their hands. It appears that the flight was quite unnecessary, as "Tom" returned bringing his bride with him. This seems rather a harsh treatment of an inoffensive little story, but the foundation is wrong. The realities of life would have been so much harder for a girl who put herself in such a situation. Folly and ingratitude do not usually reap such a satisfactory harvest, nor are old men, or young men either, the thin compounds of greed and honor they are represented here. If children's stories must have a moral, let it at least be a true one. Stories like "Little Ann" and "Tip Cat" cannot seem satisfactory to any one who prizes simplicity and naturalness in children's books, qualities which so many English stories have preëminently.

AUTHORS AND PUBLISHERS.

A LIFE of Captain Mayne Reid is in preparation, the writer being an intimate friend of the famous novelist.—Messrs. Ginn & Co. will publish during the next two months "The Practical Elements of Rhetoric," by Prof. I. F. Genung of Amherst, and "The Beginner's Latin Book," by W. C. Collar and M. G. Daniell.—In thirty years' time Major Westphal has distributed no fewer than 300,000 Testaments and 100,000 Bibles to soldiers in the German army.—The International Library and Art Association will not hold its next congress at Stockholm this year, as had been arranged, but at Geneva on the 18th of September.—"A Village Sketch and Other Verses" is the title of a volume soon to be published by Charles G. Fall, a lawyer of Boston.

La Halle Aux Guirs says that the library of Marlborough House, near Methly, in Yorkshire, England, formerly contained two books bound in leather made from the skin of the "witch" Mary Ratman, who was executed for murder at the beginning of this century. The books disappeared in consequence of the owner of the house having to dispose of his library. The same journal

adds that in Paris copies of books bound in human skin are occasionally to be found. The leather is said to be very solid, thick, and well grained.

William M. Rossetti is engaged on an introduction to a selection from the prose poems of Walt Whitman, which Chatto & Windus, London, will publish. The book is to be handsomely got up.—A series of monographs on education, in preparation by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will begin with a "Bibliography of Pedagogical Literature," compiled by Prof. G. Stanley Hall.—Mr. George Moore's new story, "A Drama in Muslin," will be published soon by Vizetelly & Co., London.—The German Shakespeare Society now consists of 212 members, the largest membership it has had since it was organized, twenty-two years ago.—The "Letters of Carlyle," presently to be issued under Mr. Eliot Norton's supervision, and Mrs. Henry Larkins' volume of personal reminiscences, "Carlyle and the Open Secret of his Life," are awaited with interest in England.

An exhaustive account is to be published in England of a recent treasure expedition to the Grand Canaries in search of the doubloons and gold dollars that went to the bottom of the sea in the hold of the Alphonso XII. The bare facts relating the success of the bold divers are said to "have more of romance about them than a thousand three-volume novels."

The summer course in Entomology and Zoölogy at Cornell University is announced to begin June 21st and continue for ten weeks.—Mr. John G. Wilson, author of the successful play "Nordeck," has in press a volume of poems entitled "Lyrics of Life."—Mr. Ruskin's publishers announce cheap reprints of two of the author's early and at present almost inaccessible books, "Time and Tide," and "The Crown of Wild Olive."

Messrs. Macmillan & Co. have just ready the first portion of Mr. Walter Leaf's long promised edition of "The Iliad," covering books I. to XII. The editor's object is to offer a guide to students who desire to know more of Homer than can be gained from the ordinary text-books. For this purpose Mr. Leaf has made an exhaustive study not merely of Homeric poems themselves, but also of the mass of literature, mostly German, that has grown up round the subject.

Mrs. Oliphant's new novel "Effie Ogilvie, the Story of a Young Life," has been brought out in Glasgow. It will no doubt soon reach "this side."—Thomas Whittaker will issue at once "The Church Revived," an account of mission work in England and America, by Rev. J. W. Bonham.—Mr. Geo. W. Carleton, long the head of the book firm of G. W. Carleton & Co., has retired from business after an identification with the book trade of twenty-five years. Mr. G. W. Dillingham, the remaining partner, will continue the business.

The "Q. P. Index Annual for 1885" (Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston), is ready, being the nineteenth of the general series. Fifty periodicals are indexed in this useful volume.—Prof. H. G. Seeley's "Fresh Water Fishes of Europe" has made its long-expected appearance, and is the book of the day among naturalists. It is a full account of this important group of the animal kingdom.—Mr. George P. Lathrop furnishes an Introduction to the "Representative Poems of Living Poets," selected by the poets themselves, which Messrs. Cassell & Co. will issue immediately.—Messrs. R. B. Haldane and John Kemp are returning for press the proofs of their translation of Schopenhauer's work, "The World as Will and Idea," (Trübner & Co.)—Messrs. Scribner will issue in the early autumn the second volume of the "Cyclopedia of Painters and Painting." The work is a superb specimen of bookmaking. The first volume contains nearly 550 full page photogravures, portraits, "signatures," and outline views of important pictures.

Prof. Andersen writes to T. Y. Crowell & Co., from Copenhagen, that Tolstoi's works have been translated into Danish and have become very popular.—The late Lionel Tennyson was a contributor to various high class periodicals, including *The Nineteenth Century* and *The Saturday Review*.—Frank H. Converse has written a book for young people, which some Boston house will probably publish.—The Seventh International Congress of Orientalists is to be held at Vienna from September 27th to October 2d.

The translator of "Salammbô" is a woman, "Mrs." and not "Mr." Sheldon, another demonstration of the absurdly loose way in which the names of authors are used by some publishers.—Rev. Morris Fuller, rector of Wyeburgh, England, a descendant of Thomas Fuller of the "Worthies," has written a two-volume account of his worthy ancestor's life, times and writings.—Marshall MacMahon is writing his memoirs, but is resolved not to have them published until after his death.

If common report is correct Mark Twain is much better satisfied by his career as a publisher than by his literary successes.

When asked recently if he would contribute to any magazine this year he said: "No, no. No sum of money however flattering could induce me to swerve from a resolution I have made to enjoy a solid old-fashioned loaf this summer, after which I will visit my country home at Elmira for the balance of the season. Besides there is more money in being a publisher. At any rate that is my experience, and if I perform any more literary work in future it will be only to 'keep my hand in.'"

A new volume on "Southern California," by T. S. Van Dyke, is soon to be issued by Fords, Howard & Hulbert.—A report has been circulated that Mrs. Garfield intended publishing reminiscences of her husband in the *Century* magazine; it seems there is no truth in the story.—The series of Great American Industries in *Harper's Magazine* will be continued in the coming number by an article on Sugar copiously illustrated. The author, R. R. Bowker, has gathered material from the most eminent and recent authorities.

Mr. Martin Farquhar Tupper's "Autobiography," which has just appeared in London, is said to be creditable to the author's tact and taste. He belongs to a family whose remote ancestors, the Tophers, dwelt originally in Thuringia. Mr. Tupper's father was an eminent medical man, who twice refused a baronetcy; and his mother came of an artistic stock. At Charterhouse he had for schoolfellows Thackeray and Helps and Leech. He records with pride that while at the University he won a prize for a theological essay over the head of Mr. Gladstone, who, however, made "a good second." Mr. Tupper was destined successively for the Church and for the Law, and was actually called to the bar, but an impediment in his speech unhappily closed both professions against him.

Dr. Holmes arrived safely in due course at Liverpool, and was greeted by a number of prominent people. The press of England gives the subject of his visit much attention.—It has been decided to found a Scottish History Society for the printing of unpublished documents relating to the country. The President of the Society is Lord Rosebery.

A new edition of Dr. Gratz's History of the Jews is being published in parts by Oskar Leiner of Leipzig.

The American Oriental Society held its annual meeting in Boston May 12th, and the American Institute of Archaeology in the same city on May 8th.

A French translation of the little pamphlet "Printed Poison," by Josiah W. Leeds,—pointing out the evil characteristics of much of the periodical literature offered on the news stands to young people,—has been issued at Nîmes, France, from the printing-house of Clavel and Chastanier.

Perhaps the first book written by an Arabian about Arabians will shortly be published in Berlin, the writer being a lady. The work is entitled "Memoirs of a Princess," and the authoress is the sister of the present Sultan of Zanzibar. The Princess of Zanzibar is known in German society as "Frau Ruete." She is imbued with European notions and has received European culture. This should make the forthcoming work exceptionally interesting, even apart from its personal bearings, and it is well known that "Frau Ruete" has had an adventurous career.

According to the *Sydney Mail*, a well-known English firm have just issued a confidential circular to the trade in the Australasian colonies, announcing their intention of preparing a special edition of a number of their copyright works for circulation in the colonies exclusively, each bookseller pledging himself not to send them to England for sale.

A well-known novelist, according to the *Pall Mall Gazette*, writes:—"The publishers are less to blame than the writers of shilling, sixpenny, or penny novels themselves. Publishers lose by one thing and gain by another. It is only natural that they are ready to seize upon any expedient for making money. But I do certainly feel that well-known authors who enter upon this field of speculation are, to say the least of it, damaging not only the prospects of novel writers generally, but their own in the future. Many a good novel, too, by a new hand will be inevitably crowded out if the system goes on. The fact is, 'live and let live' is a principle novelists as well as others should keep before their minds."

It is the opinion of the London *Telegraph* that the two systems—the sale of flimsy novelettes for a few pence, and the library circulation by the hundred of new novels—doubly contribute to keep down the English standard of fiction. The writer adds: "The majority of the subscribers to the libraries are novel readers, and nothing else. They are often incapable of making their own selection, and as a rule leave the matter to the librarian. He, therefore, must take in a supply to suit this indiscriminate demand. His subscribers want stories of some kind or another, and so there

is a steady manufacture of worthless tales which pass in and out of what those readers call their brains. Three or four hundred novels were published last year. Of these not more than twenty will be read this year by any human being—not more than five will be remembered in ten years. They while away idle hours or soothe the ennui of dull persons, just as a game of billiards or a cup of tea might do, but they neither stimulate nor instruct."

PERIODICAL LITERATURE.

THE April issue of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* is the first in the tenth volume. This magazine is one of the most characteristic and satisfactory of publications of its kind. The present number contains Rev. Geo. Dana Boardman's interesting paper on "Early Printing in the Middle Colonies," read at the celebration in December last; a biographical sketch of Col. Lambert Cadwalader, by William Henry Rawle, with a portrait; and other excellent papers. The entertaining Diary of Miss Sally Wister is concluded. It is decidedly one of the most charming historical papers that has ever been put in print, and we venture to predict will be more and more appreciated in future, as a graphic picture of social life in the time of the Revolution.

The portrait bust of Benjamin Franklin, by Houdon, the French sculptor, now in the collection of the Metropolitan Museum of New York, is reproduced,—the drawing by Kenyon Cox, the engraving by Whitney,—for a frontispiece for the June *Century*. The opening paper of the same number will be an article by Austin Dobson, illustrated by Henry Sandham and Alfred Dawson, entitled "A Literary Ramble along the Thames from Fulham to Chiswick."

In the May *Andover Review* the notable contributions are by Dr. J. H. W. Stuckenberg, on Liberal Education in Germany, and by Prof. Paul Haupt, an account of the Battle of Halule, from the cuneiform—an extremely vivid description of Sennacherib's most exciting campaign.

The last number of the *Academy* contains an article by Mr. W. Houghton, on "Animal Names of the Revised Version of the Bible." Mr. Houghton criticises unfavorably their treatment by the revisers.

Rotten Row is the title of a new venture in English "Society" journalism, which proposes to supply a handy diary of the season's doings from day to day.

Thomas Nelson Page, author of "Marse Chan," one of the best American short stories yet produced, will publish the longest story he has written in the June *Century*.

Skandia is the title of a new monthly magazine devoted to Scandinavian interests, and published at 23 Park Row, New York. It is conducted by native Swedes. The Scandinavian population of the United States approximates, it is said, a million and a half.

ART.

THE AMERICAN ARTISTS' EIGHTH EXHIBITION.

AFTER existing in a state of suspended animation for several years, the Society of American Artists, thanks to the extraordinary exertions of some of the more "earnest" members, have succeeded in getting together another exhibition. The Society is supposed to stand especially for "earnest" work, and so it is perhaps well enough that the effort should be made, for conscience' sake, as it were; but apart from this the exhibition is not worth while. There are only a few pictures, the catalogue numbers running to 121, including miscellaneous exhibits, and few of these are fit for an exhibition to which the public is expected to pay admission. There are a few portraits and one or two landscapes worth paying a fee to look at, but the rest of the contributions are experimental works, of no interest to anybody but the experimenters and such friends as understand what they are driving at. There are many good names on the list of members, and nearly all the officers are strong men, but none of them have done much to help the exhibition. Wm. M. Chase, Wm. Sartain, Kenyon Cox, J. Carroll Beckwith, T. W. Dewing, H. Bolton Jones, and D. W. Tryon are on the Board of Control; and Thomas Hovenden, Francis C. Jones, Bruce Crane, Wyatt Eaton, John La Farge, Walter Shirlaw, Olin L. Warner, J. Alden Weir and Augustus St. Gaudens are on the exhibition committees. None of these men are represented by any important work, and many of them are not represented at all. The best artists have sent their best work to other exhibitions and put the Society off with "seconds," sketches, trial studies or nothing. Their names on the first page of the catalogue look very well, but the average visitor to the exhibition, after paying an entrance fee, is not satisfied with only these and nothing more.

It is the office of genius to lead forth the race into new ways, to direct the march of progress, to advance and show the path for the multitude to follow on after. Departures from the beaten track are therefore always interesting, always suggesting possibilities that awaken enthusiasm. Ninety-nine times in a hundred they come to nothing, being the mere mistakes of unbalanced minds, turned aside by self-conceit and lacking conservative wisdom to restrain futile wanderings. But the natural leader, the one man of power among a hundred, sees these failures, and, abandoning the old landmarks, sails on unknown seas to discover new continents.

So it is that new ventures come to be regarded with more respect as the world more fully recognizes its debts to inventors and discoverers; and so it is that new departures in art attract more serious attention as knowledge and appreciation extend. The present collection of the Society is mainly interesting because of its unconventional character. It commands notice at once as a collection of uncommon works. The regulation line of landscape, genre and figure pieces, and the conventional portraits with the pillar and curtain pose and expression that everybody is heartily weary of, are noticeably absent. The pictures are for the most part striking, and the attention is aggressively challenged on all sides. Unfortunately there is little to repay attention. The pictures are peculiar, but for the most part are peculiarly bad. Many of them are absurdly, ridiculously bad. For example Mr. Kenyon Cox has a broad expanse of prussian blue and cadmium called "The Oat Field," and hanging as if intended as a pendant is a broad expanse of cadmium and prussian blue by Mr. W. A. Coffin called "The Hay Field," and more childish attempts at picture-making never were put in frames. Mr. Cox sends several other contributions equally far removed from the commonplace and from common sense.

Mr. Wm. M. Chase has a small pastel portrait that is very attractive and wonderfully well painted. It is a very beautiful subject, and the costume and drapery background afford a delightful harmony of color, but, further than this, the work is masterly and shows perfect command of the medium used. Mr. Chase has three other contributions which require no notice.

F. S. Church has a characteristic imaginative composition entitled "Peace," an ethereal damsel exercising serene dominion over a majestic lion. It is somewhat suggestive of the Christmas card, but is a delicate bit of fancy and very daintily painted.

Francis C. Jones has an attractive landscape with figures, "On the White Sand Dunes," especially well studied in effects of light and shape.

John LaFarge has a number of water color studies, mostly of flowers, well enough in their way but of no importance.

Miss Margaret Lesley has a portrait composition, two sisters, half length, life size. The modeling is round and firm, the faces life-like and expressive, and the flesh painting rarely well executed.

F. G. Mitchess is represented by a landscape figure, "Where Dunes and Meadows Meet." Two little peasant girls are seated on the sand resting from play. They are very well drawn, and the picture is noticeable for nice harmony of color.

Chas. Sprague Pearce has a single figure, a peasant girl, entitled "In the Garden." It is quite in his usual manner, but not so interesting nor so pretty as some of his recent exhibits.

Mary K. Trotter has two pictures, the "Breton Peasant," shown at the Pennsylvania Academy last fall, and a figure of a girl sewing,—a thoroughly good bit of work and a charming study.

H. R. Poore has a French village scene entitled "Noon;" Dora Wheeler has a pastel portrait, full length; Alden Weir has a portrait of R. H. Stoddard, a good likeness and well painted; B. C. Porter has a portrait, in some respects the best in the exhibition; Miss Julia Dillon has a beautiful flower piece, excellent work; D. W. Tryon has two landscapes, rich in color but not up to his National Academy work; Wm. Sartain has "A Street in Algiers" and A. H. Wyant a landscape "The Gothics, Adirondacks."

There are other contributions more noticeable than these, but noticeably bad and demoralizing.

J. V. S.

SCIENCE NOTES.

THE Chicago *Railway Review* has issued a supplement to its number of May 8th, giving reproductions of the designs for the Hawkesbury river bridge, Australia, sent in by fourteen competitors in America, England, France and Australia. They are here all reduced to a common scale, and the sheet thus shows at a glance the salient points of the different methods proposed for solving a difficult problem of engineering. Three American builders competed, The Phenix Bridge Co., of this city, The Edge Moor Iron Co., of Wilmington, and the Union Bridge Co., of New York. They were the three lowest on the list, their offers being respectively £280,000, £296,000, and £327,000. The next lowest bidders were Messrs. Fföde & Young, of London, £377,500, and

from this figure the prices ranged to £685,000 from La Campagne de Fives, Paris, and £702,000 from David Munroe, Melbourne, Australia. The contract was awarded to the highest of the three American bidders because of the more satisfactory character of the plans which they submitted for the foundations, which are to be driven through more than one hundred feet of soft river mud, as noticed in THE AMERICAN last week. Simplicity is the leading characteristic of all the American designs, and is doubtless to be accepted as the reason for their being uniformly less costly than the foreign.

In his recently issued annual report as Surgeon of the U. S. Army Dr. John S. Billings gives some interesting statistics and estimates in regard to population and disease. Of the average annual increase of 1,159,000 in the population of the country for the last ten years, he estimates that 281,000 is due to immigration and 878,000 to the natural excess of births over deaths. The mean annual birth rate for the United States was 36 per 1,000. During the census year there was a comparatively low death rate and a high birth rate. As among the different classes of citizens, the report shows the death rate to have been larger in the colored than in the white population, and among the latter higher in the foreign element than among those of American parentage. The death rate was also greater in cities than in rural districts. The most important causes of disease and death were consumption, pneumonia, diphtheria, typhoid fever, malarial fever, and the various ill-defined forms of attack to which children under one year of age are particularly subject. During 1880 the deaths amounted to 756,893. Of all causes consumption was the most fatal. Its victims numbered 91,270.

It seems that the obelisk question was not by any means finally disposed of by the coating of paraffine which was applied some months ago. Prof. Thomas Egleston, who has lately been examining it says: "It is expected, now that the obelisk is supposed to have been waterproofed, that the disintegration will cease, but this appears to me to be founded on an altogether mistaken theory, which is, that the cracking is alone due to the expansion of the ice formed in the cracks. The rapid and extreme changes of temperature in this climate in a stone which, from its mass alone, must have but a feeble conducting power, would be sufficient to cause the disintegration already begun to continue with comparative rapidity without the intervention of ice, but simply from the continued expansion and contraction going on on its weakened surface. But in a moist climate like our own, where it was subjected to both extremes of heat and cold it would take place rapidly, as it has done. Even if the surface was waterproofed, the cold of winter and the heat of summer would act below the surface both of the coating and of the stone, causing the coating to break or fissures through it to occur, so as to let in the moisture, and then both causes would operate together as before." In conclusion Prof. Egleston calls attention to the deterioration which the obelisks of London and Paris have undergone, and expresses his opinion that only housing can save the one in Central Park.

The London *Times* mentions some very remarkable results in the way of decreased coal consumption and increased speed, effected by the new triple-expansion engines in sea-going steamers. One of the instances was the steamer *Aller*, 5,500 tons, 455 feet long by 48 feet broad, which was tried on the Clyde recently. To develop 6,000 indicated horse power in ordinary compound engines, by the same builders, requires a consumption of 130 tons per 24 hours. In these triple-expansion engines the consumption is 90 tons. A still more remarkable comparison is shown by the results of ocean voyages by experimental engines, from the designs of which those of the *Aller* have been constructed. It will be remembered that part of the price paid by the Cunard Company for the *Umbria* and the *Etruria* was made up of the two steamers *Parthia* and *Batavia*, which are now the property of Mr. Pearce, M. P., President of the Fairfield Company. The old compound engines were removed by him to make room for triple-expansion engines and steel boilers. The log of the *Parthia* in 1883 shows that she burnt 47 tons of coal per day of 24 hours when going at a speed of 11 knots. Her log during 1885-86 shows that the consumption was 25 tons at the same speed. Her speed is now much higher, but the comparison must be made with her old rate. The *Batavia* shows still better results. The consumption in 1883 was 40 tons per day at 11 knots. In 1885, with the new engines, it was only 21 tons.

A correspondent of the *Medical and Surgical Reporter* gives a curious instance of the effect of coffee in large and concentrated doses as exhibited in the case of a young woman of twenty-two who had acquired the habit of eating roasted coffee beans. Though the habit was only of four months standing, she had eaten as much as half a pound a day, and had only decreased to four ounces per day on the earnest solicitation of friends. The effect on her health had been that she became pale, sallow, and nervous; she

pulse weakened, the stomach got out of order, and, among other symptoms, there was marked dyspnoea in going up stairs. An attempt to stop the habit was followed in a few hours by intense nervousness, trembling, and a strong desire for coffee.

COMMUNICATIONS. THE HOURS OF LABOR.

To the Editor of THE AMERICAN:

IT is rarely in these exciting times that we read articles on the labor question, from papers occupying as high social position as yours, so candid and judicious as the editorial in the last AMERICAN. But in raising the following question it seems to me you ignore or overlook the foundation stone of the distribution of labor's products. You say:

Whether we have reached the point at which eight hours of labor from the laboring population is sufficient for the industrial needs of the world, we cannot tell. We should need something like omniscience to decide that. But we think that the indications point that way.

To that query I beg to suggest that astute political economists nearly a century ago proved conclusively that if the products of labor were not wasted "for that which is not bread," and were not through the intricacies of business diverted from those who labor to those who labor not at all by hand or brain, that "five hours a day would abundantly satisfy all the reasonable wants and even supply many of the luxuries of life." It was upon this theory that Shakers and the Socialistic "phalanx" were urged upon public attention at the period referred to.

Bankers and professional men for a long time have only worked six hours a day, and it is not unnatural that laboring men should seek to follow such example, especially now when labor-saving machinery has quadrupled labor products.

But my impression has been for some years, that the clamor for "eight hours" has largely grown out of the notion amongst them that there is an almost constant "over-production" everywhere, which I regard as the baldest of all our popular fallacies. There may be at times too much of a particular product, but no general over-production; for the means of payment being at hand, the general desire of acquisition and improvement being had, there will always be commensurate consumption of every product. So I believe working men proceed on an erroneous assumption. It is the hoarding of money for what are now called "corners" in merchandise and stocks, and for investing in first mortgages that causes the plethora of merchandise. A visit to the squalid, uncarpeted dwellings of the multitudinous poor, and an inspection of their scanty table will show any inquirer after truth that there is not too much of the staples of life produced. Vicious distribution and lack of labor explain the whole matter. To me there has never been but one question on the subject. Will a lessening of the hours promote or injure the health and morals of the laborer? It is very doubtful if with the present facilities of dissipation the efficiency of laborers would be increased by eight instead of ten hours. The fully-employed well-paid laborer can now, through the benefits of labor-saving machinery, live more sumptuously than the nobleman of two hundred years ago; and if our government was a little more paternal or conservative of the general welfare, there could be no suffering or squalid deprivation amongst the people. But I suppose for this we shall have to wait until all the people become Quakers, or the dawn of the Millennium?

Norristown, Pa.

M. AUGE.

AN N. T. ON THE BLAIR BILL.¹

THE following letter to a friend in New York, from a well-informed and close observer, now engaged in teaching at one of the leading institutions in the Cotton Belt, is a timely contribution to the discussion of perhaps the most important measure before Congress. The writer is a thorough Republican, who from boyhood has had exceptional opportunities of learning the true inwardness of the higher social life of the South:

—, April 23, 1886.

Dear Brother:

Your note came duly to hand. My answer has been necessarily delayed, but while waiting I have been thinking over your questions, and would answer them as follows:

(a) Will the money stick in the hands of the small fry Southern politicians, or their friends, to any great extent? Not more South than North. We are thoroughly disfranchised down here. With full 500 majority in the county, we cannot get a county officer. Our elections are in the Democratic caucuses. But they make fairly good nominations, and our local officers are, generally speaking, not a bad set, so far as I can learn. Just here I do not believe that they would be improved if we had a full vote and a fair count, though the present condition of things is a vile outrage all the same.

(b) Would colored people get their fair share? In some places, yes. In some, no. What the proportion would be I can't say. I should think that in many places they would be somewhat swindled. I don't think it makes much difference. Local officers will be fairly honest. The people are interested,

¹From the Christian Union, New York, May 13.

and have their eyes open, and will know what becomes of the money. If it all went to white education—while that would be unjust and an outrage—it would be little less benefit to the community than if fairly divided. To treble the school privileges of the whites would not be to give them more than enough. But the negro will not be badly robbed, if the money comes this way, for three good reasons. (1) It would be dangerous. The whole land will be on the watch as to what becomes of this money. (2) The Southern white man is kindly disposed toward the black man. He wants to be just to him and to help him. He recognizes and appreciates his good qualities, and has a high regard for him. He claims to be the negro's best friend, and he means what he says. He will bear with him with more patience, and will care for him more kindly and readily than any Northern abolitionist would. All this is true, though you may not be ready to believe it. But it all hangs on one proviso. The nigger must be kept in his place. He will kill the nigger like a dog, he will himself freely die, before he will allow the nigger (for that is the correct pronunciation of that word among polite people of the South these days) to get "above his place." If you ask what "his place" is, you ask a hard question, the answer to which is a variable quantity. But it is not generally thought now that to be able to read and write takes him out of "his place." And (3) there is a general feeling that this black mass of ignorance is unsafe. This feeling is general enough, and in influential places enough to go far toward securing the negro his rights under the bill.

(c) Will the money be judiciously expended? No, sir. It cannot be. Put the money into the hands of the best school officers in the land, and tell them to spend it here judiciously, with no command of appliances, apparatus, teachers, or scholars, or parents who know anything of schools, and they will make fearful blunders. What, then, must we expect of men who have had no training in such work? But I believe the bulk of them will try, fairly honestly, to do the best they can without too much trouble.

(d) Will it help or hinder the development of the spirit of self-help? Public education is a public benefit, for which we tax the public. Good in the county, it is better in the State, and best in the Nation. The broader it is, the more we share the burden and the advantage. Experimentally, it has always aided and never hindered self-helpfulness. It seems to be generally acknowledged that the South is doing nobly in this direction now—that it is doing all it can. If so, the spirit needs no development here. The plea for the bill is that the South cannot do half that needs to be done. Of course it is hard to prophesy wisely, but I hope and believe that the South will count that the bill is an acknowledgment on the part of the Nation that it shares the dread of this mass of ignorance, and assumes its part of the responsibility for what the war and reconstruction have done in bringing about the present condition of affairs; that the people will feel that the Nation takes hold to lift the poor, ignorant, and degraded of both races. I believe, with Kentucky's bishop, that this is the best bill ever introduced into Congress.

The restraints of slavery are dead. Let these masses of black and white ignorance and brutality live on together until the memory and influence of those dead restraints are lost in the past, and the white man who feels that he must keep the negro down will find that the man born and bred free will not quietly endure that which the man born a slave, and trained by slaves, submitted to. There is a change working in the spirit of the negro to which the South is sadly blind. Unless by enlightenment a new spirit can be awakened in both races, there are fearful days in store for this part of the land.

N. T. (WHICH IS NIGGER TEACHER).

THE NORTH ATLANTIC STEAMSHIPS.¹

IN 1819, the *Savannah* made the passage from America chiefly under canvas, but using paddles turned by steam when the wind failed and the sea was calm. Twelve years afterwards, viz., in 1831, the *Royal William* came across from Quebec in twenty-five days, relying more upon steam than sail; and in 1838 the *Sirius*, a vessel of 450 tons, and 178 feet in length, crossed from this country to New York in seventeen days. She was passed on the voyage out by the *Great Western*, which sailed from Bristol, the port in which she was built, three days afterwards, viz., 7th of April, 1838, and arrived on the 23d, fifteen days out.

It was now made clearly evident that the Transatlantic vessel of the future was one to be propelled by steam. To no one did this seem more apparent than the late Mr. Samuel Cunard, an able, far-seeing man of business who speedily grasped the situation. Though in the following year, 1838, the British Government contracted with Messrs. Cunard, Burns & Co. to supply three steamers for the performance of two voyages monthly, it was not till 1840 that the Cunard line was really established. The first vessel built for the newly formed company was the *Britannia*. She was 207 feet in length, 35 feet broad, and 22 feet in depth, dimensions which it may be interesting to compare with those of the *Umbria* and *Etruria*, the latest additions to that company's magnificent fleet, which are each 501 feet 6 inches long, 57 feet broad, and 38 feet deep. The *Britannia*'s engines were of the rude side-lever kind, and were powerful enough to create an average speed of 8½ knots an hour over a full Atlantic voyage. It was in this ship that Dickens set out for America in 1842.

Ten years after the Cunard flag had been hoisted on the *Britannia* came serious determined opposition from America, in the establishment of the Collins Line, with the *Arctic*, the *Baltic*, the *Atlantic*, and *Pacific*, 3,000 tons each. Faster vessels had to be put on by the older company, and from 8½ knots the speed was raised to 12 and 12½ knots, yet the smartest passages of the Cunard Company's vessels were twelve days and nine hours outwards, and eleven days and eleven hours homewards, against eleven days eight hours outwards, and ten days twenty-three hours homewards. So the senior company was again forced to seek the assistance of the naval architect and the marine engineer in order to re-establish supremacy. But the Collins Line was unfortunate in every other way except speed, the *Arctic*, with Mr. Collins and his wife and daughter and many lives, being lost in collision with the *Vesta*; and in 1856 the *Pacific* set out, and never was heard of again. By 1858 the shareholders were ruined, and the line was

¹Extracts from an article on "Ocean Steamers," by Thomas Dykes, in the *Fortnightly Review*.

given up. A new flag, which was destined to brave the breeze longer than the Collins Line, however, was now seen fluttering on the Atlantic. This was that of the well-known Inman fleet, the first vessel of which was the *City of Glasgow*, 1,600 tons, which sailed to Philadelphia on the 11th of December, 1850, and was the first screw steamer to cross the Atlantic in winter. This ship was followed by the *City of Manchester*, 1,906 tons, on the 1st of July, 1851, and the *City of Philadelphia* on the 30th of August, 1854, the fleet being gradually added to, though it was not till 1857 that the boats first began to ply to New York.

In 1856 were formed the Allan and the Anchor lines, and in the latter year the Cunard Company had built for them their first iron vessel, the famous *Persia*, which, with engines of 3,600 horse-power, reduced the average passage between New York and Queenstown to ten and a-half days. This was attained at a very heavy cost of 150 tons of coal per twenty-four hours, but as it had been distinctly laid down by the shipping authorities of the day that where time was included as an element in mercantile conveyance (and it was admittedly a very important one), it would generally be found that a high speed, at an expense of fuel, would well compensate for the additional expense; so the Cunard Company, with their supremacy again established, did not grudge the firing. In 1857, Brunel, who had designed the *Great Britain*, gave the company a scare with his *Great Eastern*, but she proved a failure from first to last, though the huge vessel deserves most honorable mention in the history of the Atlantic ferry, from the important part she played in the laying of the first Atlantic cable. In 1861, the *Scotia*, the last of the Cunard paddle-ships, and which reduced the passage to nine days, was built on the Clyde, the Lords of the Admiralty having, after a vexatious delay, allowed the use of propellers in mail steamboats, and the reform of the fleet began with the launching of the *China*, the first vessel under the company's flag which was fitted with the screw. The Guion Line was established in the following year (1863), and seven years afterwards the White Star floated its well-known banner of recognition on their pioneer ship *Oceanic*, 3,707 tons.

The competition was now at its height, for during the time of the war, and previous to the laying down of the Atlantic cable in 1866, much interest was necessarily attached to the arrival of Transatlantic steamers, whole columns of intelligence from the latest files of American newspapers being frequently telegraphed from Queenstown to London and the large provincial towns, where, within a few hours after the whistles of the steamers were heard off the Irish coast, newsboys were calling loudly "The surrender of Lee," or "The fall of Richmond." When a mail, late through stress of weather or headwinds, hove in sight, and it was supposed that there was on board news of a battle which previous intelligence had led the British public to anticipate, the excitement was of course intense, and many smart and daring journalistic feats were performed outside of Cork Harbor by adventurous correspondents. In regard to this, it is a noteworthy fact that the Cunard mail steamer from New York, in April, 1865, was delayed so much in mid-Atlantic by head winds, head seas, and other adverse circumstances, that the Allan Line steamer *Nova Scotia*, holding a northerly course to clear Malin Head, landed a file of American papers at Moville, on Loch Foyle, in Donegal. These papers contained the first news and full account of the assassination of President Lincoln; and with a telegraph office as near at hand as Londonderry, five miles off, a clever correspondent might easily have realized a small fortune from them. They were not utilized, however, and the British public slept soundly whilst the huge steamer pursued her voyage to the Mersey; and thus a golden opportunity in journalism was lost forever.

Though ordinary commercial transactions could sometimes be so readily arranged by cablegram, there were times when the principals of firms found that it was absolutely imperative that they should cross the Atlantic. This necessitated a fresh demand for speed, which did not come from America, as many people are of opinion, but rather from the market centres of London, Liverpool, Manchester, Glasgow, and other large towns, business men not caring to spend a single day more at sea, going or returning, than they could spare, whilst those who went out for the purpose of securing some extensive contract of which they had been advised electrically, felt anything but happy in a slow boat off Sandy Hook, whilst dreaded rivals, who had been lucky enough to secure passages in fast ships, were actively at work in Wall Street or snug in the railway cars on the road to Chicago or St. Louis. The rivalry following on this began with the Inman and White Star Lines, and in 1877 the *City of Berlin* made the passage from Queenstown to Sandy Hook in 7 days 14 hours 12 minutes, after some very good outward and inward average runs, the best of the former of which were, outward, 7 days 18 hours 2 minutes, in September, 1875, and, homeward, 7 days 14 hours 43 minutes. This was soon eclipsed by the White Star steamer *Britannic*, which, on the 10th August, 1877, performed the voyage in 7 days 10 hours 53 minutes, a passage which it was thought by many at the time could not well be improved upon.

The great battle of speed for the Atlantic Blue Ribbon was however but commencing, for Mr. Pearce of Fairfield, the managing partner of the extensive shipbuilding works of Messrs. John Elder & Co. (now the Fairfield Shipbuilding and Engineering Company), was of opinion with Emerson, that "it is time to be old to take in sail," or, for the matter of that, to cut off steam, and offered to build a vessel which would further reduce the duration of the voyage. The Cunard Company, whose fastest ship was the *Gallia*, did not entertain favorably the idea of speedier vessels, with increased coal-consumption, nor did the managers of any other line save the Guion, which, however, at the time, could not see their way to find the large amount necessary for an expensive addition to their fleet. "Find me" (naming a certain amount), said Mr. Pearce to Mr. Guion, "and I will find the rest, and build a steamship which will beat the fastest on the Atlantic." The money was found, and from the Fairfield yard was turned out, in 1879, the *Arizona* of 5,164 tons, 450 feet in length, and 45 feet 4 inches broad, with engines of 6,000 indicated horse-power. When tried on the measured mile of Glasgow, her speed was found to be 17.3 knots an hour, which was most satisfactory, and soon after she was put on the Atlantic she amply fulfilled her builder's promise, steaming 16½ knots when fully laden. In July, 1876, she came over from Sandy Hook to Queenstown in 7 days 8 hours 6 minutes, and the next voyage homewards was only 15 minutes slower; while on November 8th,

1879, she went out to New York from Queenstown in 7 days 8 hours 49 minutes. These being the fastest passages out and home ever registered, the gauntlet which the Guion Company had thus thrown down was bound to be picked up by one or other of the premier companies.

No doubt to maintain the reputation which the *City of Berlin*, the *City of Richmond*, and other magnificent vessels had in late years achieved by their fleet, the Inmans entrusted the Barrow Shipbuilding Company with an order for a large new steamer of 8,500 tons, 560 feet long, to be named the *City of Rome*; while almost at the same time the Cunard Company commissioned Messrs. J. and G. Thompson, of Dalmuir-on-Clyde, to build the *Servia*, of 8,500 tons, with engines of 11,000 horse-power, and calculated to steam 18 knots an hour, a rate of speed which was also expected of the Inman vessel. No sooner were the keels of these ships laid down in 1880 than the construction of a third ship to defend the Guion flag, which now stood in some danger of being lowered, was commenced in Fairfield yard. This was the celebrated *Alaska*, subsequently to be known to fame as "the greyhound of the Atlantic," a designation first applied prophetically in 1882 in the *New York Herald*, when she was on the stocks, in a special article by the present writer on the ships for the Transatlantic trade at that time in course of being built in Great Britain.

Excitement ran high in New York as to the probable result of the competition between these lines; "pools" were formed in the commercial haunts and restaurants, and the very steamboat stokers themselves risked their hard-earned dollars on the vessel they considered likely to beat the record. The *Alaska* was not tried by the usual mile test, and in her early voyages did not succeed in eclipsing the feats of the *Arizona*, the full steam power not being applied; but on June 6th, 1882, she came home from New York to Queenstown in 6 days 22 hours and 2 minutes, and on September 19th of the same year lowered the record to 6 days 18 hours and 37 minutes, her fastest voyage outwards being 6 days 21 hours 38 minutes, on September 16th, 1883.

Owing to the defects connected with her machinery, the *City of Rome*, as regards speed, proved unsuccessful, and though she has since made fast passages for the Anchor Company, under whose flag she now sails, her best performance for the Inman Line was 7 days 15 hours 24 minutes, from Sandy Hook to Queenstown, on April 22, 1882. Since passing into the hands of the Anchor Company, her engines have been altered, and her boiler power increased. The *Servia*, in January of the same year, accomplished the homeward voyage in 7 days 8 hours 6 minutes, or about half an hour behind the 1881 September record of the *Arizona*. Not content with the *Alaska's* performances, Mr. Pearce built to his own order the famous *Oregon*, of 7,375 tons, which under the Guion flag further reduced the record, on April 19, 1884, to 6 days 8 hours 22 minutes; her fastest homeward passage to Queenstown being accomplished in 6 days 10 hours 40 minutes, from Sandy Hook. This magnificent ship having been afterwards acquired by the Cunard Company, was continuing to make splendid average runs for her new owners, when she was sunk in collision with an American trading schooner off Fire Island, within a few hours of completing her outward passage on March 14, fortunately without the loss of a single life. Most of the Atlantic companies were by this time inclined to cry "enough," as each additional fast boat built lowered the value for passengers' service of one of the "ten-day average" steamers, and relegated many of them to the secondary rank of cargo-carriers. The Fairfield builder, however, had declared to improve upon the *Oregon's* passage, and with this in view, and also with the view of finding steady employment for his large staff of six thousand workmen, he determined upon laying the keel of a fresh ocean triumph, to be named the *Minnesota*. Before this could be done, however, the Cunard Company stepped in with the offer of an order for a large and fast steamer, which was accepted only on condition that two such ships should be taken; hence we have those magnificent twin vessels, the *Umbria* and *Etruria*, which undoubtedly are the fastest and finest vessels at the present day. The *Umbria* and *Etruria* are each 591 feet 6 inches long, 57 feet wide, 38 feet 2 inches deep, and are 7,718 tons gross tonnage. Their screw propellers are each 24 feet 6 inches in diameter, and each has a full complement of 281 men and officers. The *Umbria* having been for some time fitted out as an armed cruiser, has made comparatively few voyages, performing the passage out in 6 days 23 hours 38 minutes; and the homeward voyage in 6 days 14 hours 3 minutes. In August, 1885, the *Etruria* fairly eclipsed the previous Atlantic records by crossing from Queenstown to Sandy Hook in 6 days 5 hours 31 minutes, and coming home again on the return voyage in 6 days 7 hours 32 minutes. At the former figures the record now stands, reduced by 29 hours and 20 minutes through the competition which had set in seven years previously.

Such is in outline a brief history of the chief events in connection with the battle for the supremacy on the Atlantic, so far as speed is concerned. If the duration of the voyage has been lowered, however, by fully a day and a half, it must be kept in mind that the reduction has been attained at a considerable increase in outlay. The *Arizona's* consumption of coal and oil per twenty-four hours is 160 tons and 40 gallons; the *Alaska's* 224 tons and 60 gallons; while that of the unfortunate *Oregon* was 285 tons and 85 gallons; while the firemen and trimmers required in each numbered respectively 50, 80, and 102. The *Umbria* and *Etruria* each consume 300 tons of South Wales coal, or 12½ tons per hour; no fewer than 111 firemen and trimmers being engaged on the hard grimy work of putting this enormous amount of fuel, equal to that carried by two full-sized mineral railway trains—into seventy-two large boiler furnaces.

In regard to the ocean steamers of the future, it is confidently anticipated that though they cannot be made much more comfortable than at present, they may be made two or three miles an hour faster; and Mr. Pearce, M. P., who is Chairman of the Guion Line, has declared that the day is not far distant when the Atlantic will be crossed in four days, without in any way sacrificing safety to speed. Further improvements, like the triple expansion engines and forced draught, will allow of a heavier application of fuel and increased horse-power, and with "every vessel its own lifeboat," through effective water-tight compartments and powerful pumps, such as those carried in the *Hawarden Castle*, equal to throwing out forty or fifty tons of water per minute, ocean traveling will be rendered more speedy and less dangerous than it is at present, when, if the full traffic is considered, a man's life is much safer on a well-appointed steamer than in a railway train.

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